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Observations on a Tour through the Highlands and Part of the Western Isles of Scotland, particularly Staffa and Icolmkill: to which are added, a Description of the Falls of the Clyde, of the Country round Moffat, and an Analysis of its Mineral Waters. By T. Garnett, M. D. &c. Illustrated by a Map, and Fifty-two Plates, engraved in the Manner of Aquatinta, from Drawings taken on the Spot by W. H. Watts, Miniature and Landscape Painter, who accompanied the Author in his Tour. 2 Vols. 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

THERE are few roads, however beaten, which will not furnish some supply to a judicious gleaner. This secluded part of Great-Britain, long known only by fame as a country wild, interesting, and picturesque, has, within about thirty years, been visited by numerous travellers. Besides Dr. Johnson, Mr. Gilpin as a picturesque tourist, Mr. Pennant as a naturalist and antiquary, Mr. Knox as a statistical surveyor, Mr. Lettice and Capt. Newte as more general observers, Faujas de St. Fond as a mineralogist, have respectively published their remarks; while the numerous inquiries of Sir John Sinclair, from each parish, have filled almost every little lacuna, which haste, inattention, or inaccurate information, might have left unexplored, as well as supplied minute deficiencies in points which can never be the objects of mere travellers. A glean- ing can only remain; but the gleanings of an able inquirer will be always respectable. We indeed wish that Dr. Garnett had confined himself to this department. His volumes, though less ample, would have been more interesting: his remarks would have more frequently had the recommendation of novelty. At present, we meet with many observations copied from his predecessors, whole pages transcribed from works well known; nor can the apology offered, that the transactions recorded render each spot more interesting, excuse this plagiarism, since the end might be obtained by mentioning the event, and referring to the respective authors for the circum-

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stances. In other respects, we can cheerfully praise Dr. Garnett. His descriptions are clear and intelligible, without the obscurity, we had almost said the cant, of the picturesque tourist. On the same spot, we receive clearer and more discriminated ideas from our author, than even from Mr. Gilpin. To his merit as a mineralogist he adds that of a botanist; and, though more concise than Mr. Pennant as an antiquary, or than St. Fond as a mineralogist, his information is sufficiently minute and interesting. In short, had he gleaned only, we could have followed him with pleasure: as the copyist, we have yawned over his pages, as over a tale twice told.

Dr. Garnett begins with spots equally interesting and beautiful: the grand dignity of Dunbarton, the beauties of Inverary and Loch Lomond, and the majestic scenery of the passes which lead to the Highlands, arrest very early the reader's attention. The lakes on the west, the projected canal of Crinan, and the distresses occasioned by a mistaken policy of government in the western islands, instanced in that of Mull, furnish scenes and speculations of a very different kind. On his return from Mull, he proceeded northward along the lakes to Inverness, passing the lines formed by Fort William and Fort Augustus, and then returned, after a short excursion westward to Loch Tay, to Perth. He next proceeded to Loch Leven; and, crossing the Forth at Stirling, returned westward, near his former line, in the neighbourhood of Benlomond. He closed his tour at Glasgow, after extending it a little to Moffat.

Curious travellers will at once perceive, that, in this route, Dr. Garnett visited the most interesting scenes which the Highlands offer; nor can they doubt, that, with the assistance of his predecessors, though he has often too closely followed their steps, many valuable observations must have been collected.

In this tour, the great improvements, by means of canals, first offer themselves to our notice. That which joins the Forth to the Clyde is a most stupendous work, not well understood in this country. It furnishes a communication, across the whole island, not less important in a political than in a commercial view. Perhaps, to have enlarged it, might have rendered the undertaking too vast, as a part of the canal is still raised on aqueducts; but it cannot escape even ordinary observers, that it must have been a work of still greater importance, if it would have admitted a vessel of war. The canal of Crinan, intended to pass from the western coasts of Argyleshire to the Clyde, without doubling the Mull of Cantire, will be of the greatest importance to the laborious Hebridian. The chain of lakes, however, which we have

described as Dr. Garnett's northern boundary, may perhaps with more advantage be adopted as the warlike communication between the eastern and western oceans. These lakes, surrounded by higher grounds, form a deep glen, known by a Gaelic name which bears this signification. Through a great part of the way, the water is already of a considerable depth, and there is a sufficient supply for the remaining part of the canal from the adjacent hills; nor is there any reason to think, that a very great difference in the level exists, except what arises from the greater elevation of the eastern above the western seas, which is supposed to amount only to about ten feet.

These are the leading principles of the great changes that have been proposed, or have taken place in the country, in order to facilitate the communication between the different parts; changes, which must greatly improve the face of this part of the island when they have fully taken effect; nor can we suppose, from the public spirit which pervades all ranks, and the fostering hand of government, that these improvements will be very distant. The completion of the canal of Crinan, on a lower, but not less useful scale, will not, we trust, be long delayed. It is now stopped, we are informed, for want of supplies.

The description of the canal joining the Clyde with the Forth, which led us to these speculations, we will add from the work.

‘ This canal displays, in a striking view, what can be effected by the art and perseverance of man. Its extreme length, from the Forth to the Clyde, is thirty-five miles, beginning at the mouth of the Carron on the east, and ending in the Clyde near Kilpatrick, on the west coast of Scotland. It rises and falls 160 feet, by means of thirty-nine locks, twenty of which are on the east side of the summit, and nineteen on the west; for the tide does not ebb so low in the Clyde as in the Forth by nine feet. There are eighteen draw-bridges, and fifteen aqueduct-bridges of considerable size. About five miles from Kilpatrick, the canal crosses the river Kelvin, and is carried over a valley by means of an aqueduct bridge, consisting of four arches, sixty-five feet high, and four hundred and twenty in length. The situation of this bridge is very picturesque, and exhibits a striking effort of human ingenuity and labour.

‘ Vessels of very considerable size, for instance those drawing eight feet water, and not exceeding nineteen feet beam, and seventy-three in length, can pass with great ease along this canal.

‘ This amazing work will unquestionably be found of great national utility; by means of it, a tedious and dangerous navigation, north about, from the eastern to the western coast, is

4 *Garnett's Tour through the Highlands of Scotland.*

avoided, which is at all times desirable; but in winter, and in time of war, a very important object. It will likewise contribute very considerably to the improvement of the country through which it passes, by giving an easy and cheap carriage to its produce, and will greatly conduce to the establishment of manufactures, by affording so excellent a conveyance of the raw material and manufactured goods, as well as coal, without which it is almost impossible for any manufacture to be carried on to a great extent.' Vol. i. P. 3.

'To supply such a canal with water, was itself a great work; for this purpose, one reservoir has been formed, which is twenty-four feet deep, and covers fifty acres; there is another in the neighbourhood of Kilsyth, the depth of which is twenty-two feet, and which extends over a space of seventy acres. This last reservoir was formed at an inconsiderable expence, in comparison of the surface and quantity of water which it contains; the engineer having taken advantage of an extensive hollow, which seemed as if scooped out on purpose by the hand of nature. At one part only of this hollow, there was a deep opening 100 feet wide at the bottom, and 200 yards at the top; by filling up this to the height of about twenty-five feet, the work was at once completed; and by leaving a sluice in the center, it can be filled and emptied at pleasure. The whole is ornamented with plantations, and finished in a neat and masterly manner, and forms perhaps one of the largest and most beautiful artificial sheets of water in the kingdom.' Vol. i. P. 5.

The rock of Dunbarton is a black stone, which Dr. Garnett, after St. Fond, describes as a basaltic lava: but these gentlemen may be said to have volcanic eyes, which see every thing in this peculiar light. Staffa is, indeed, partly volcanic; but we cannot admit that the columns of Staffa, or those of Antrim, are wholly the effect of fire; and it is remarkable, that, in the comparative analysis of basaltes and lava, copied from Bergman, there is no mention of the proportion of air. Lava, we know, affords a very small quantity; that basaltes is equally deficient in this respect has not been shown; but we know that Bergman considered basaltes as a kind of trap, not the production of fire. Since Mr. Kirwan's arguments have been fully considered, the igneous origin of basaltic columns has been doubted; and Dr. Garnett eludes the objections in a curious way. While he considers basaltic columns as volcanic, he still supposes the figure to be the effect of retraction, on the conversion of the substance to a solid, from a state of fluidity; comparing it to the prismatic forms of starch. But this retraction he explains from a previous solution of the substance, *in caloric*. The curved columns seem to us strongly,

adverse to the igneous system. We can easily suppose that they may assume this form in drying; but, when a substance is sufficiently heated to crystallise, it must be too near a state of fluidity to admit a permanent curvature; and, when crystallised, it will be at once solid. Curved crystals, in any of the regular processes of crystallisation, have never, we believe, been noticed.

From Dunbarton, the author crossed the Leven. We ought not to omit mentioning the column erected to the memory of Dr. Smollett, the parent and the earliest active supporter of this journal. He might regret, with Dr. Garnett, the loss of the pastoral scenery of his native vale, and the change which it has experienced from those sources of immorality and dissipation, manufactures and commerce; but he could not lament the change from gloomy discontent, uncultivated mountains, and frequent famine, to cheerfulness, smiling verdure, and regular supplies: such, in many parts of Scotland, is the true reflexion of the altered features.

Loch Lomond's beautiful scenery, the splendor of the castle, and the whole of the country round, are known from various descriptions. We need not fill our pages with what is found in every descriptive tour. Benlomond, the neighbouring mountain, is granite, interspersed with quartz, and occasionally with micaceous schistus; and we may add, that almost the whole of the western part of Scotland consists of granite. Some of the islands, particularly Icolmkill, afford marble. The view from Benlomond we select as a specimen of our author's descriptive talents.

‘ Having breakfasted early the next morning, and the appearance of the weather being favourable, we set out for the top of Benlomond, accompanied by a son of our landlord, a civil and intelligent young man, who serves as a guide to those that visit the mountain. He took with him some biscuits and a bottle of whisky, a precaution absolutely necessary to enable a person to climb a steep ascent of six miles. We consumed near three hours in ascending, as I wished to examine the vegetable productions in our way. When we had got about four miles up the side, which is two thirds of the way, we saw clouds floating below us on the lake, which sometimes obscured a great part of its surface; and we several times found ourselves involved in light fleecy clouds, which however did not feel sensibly damp.

‘ At length we gained the summit, and were fortunate in finding scarce a cloud within our extensive horizon. The view from the mountain is beyond conception grand and interesting: at the bottom is seen the beautiful lake, stretched out like a map, its islands having lost their rugged forms, and appearing as flat surfaces amid the bright expanse. The banks of the lake are seen,

6 *Garnett's Tour through the Highlands of Scotland.*

ornamented with gentlemen's seats and cultivated grounds. Looking towards the east, the rich plains of Lothian and Stirlingshire are distinctly spread out to the sight: casting our eyes from thence to the south, and pursuing the view towards the west, the high grounds of Lanerkshire, the vales of Renfrewshire, with the Firth of Clyde, and the wide Atlantic with its islands, are clearly discerned; while the Isle of Man and the coast of Ireland, blend as it were with the sky, being scarcely discernible. But to one unaccustomed to highland scenery, the most striking view is undoubtedly on the north side, which may with truth be termed horribly or fearfully sublime. The eye, from where it first discerns the Ochil Hills, near the east, ranging along the north, till it comes near the western ocean, sees nothing but mountain upon mountain, elevating their summits in almost every variety of shape. In this stupendous range our guide pointed out to us Benevis, the highest hill in Britain, Benlawers, Benvorlich, and Cruachan to the north; and to the south-west, Goatfield, a high hill in the Isle of Arran, and the Paps of Jura. To the north-east, in the vallies between the mountains, we perceived several of the lakes in Perthshire like embossed mirrors. Among these were Loch Catharine, Lochard, and Loch-Monteith.

‘From the north side of Benlomond, springs the famous Forth; here an inconsiderable rill, that a child might step over: very soon, however, the torrents constantly pouring down from the mountains, increase it to the size of a small brook, which winds its way through the valley, now and then expanding into a little lake. What is remarkable in this river, is, that even at its origin it winds just in the same manner, as, when become more majestic, it passes through the Carse of Stirling.’ Vol. i. P. 54.

‘We were not long permitted to indulge in the contemplation of the sublime scenery around us; we had scarce been half an hour on the summit of the mountain, when we saw clouds rolling majestically far below us; now covering the surface of the lake, and now hiding the surrounding mountains; dark streams of rain poured down from them into the vallies, and the whole formed as sublime a scene as is possible to contemplate, unless when in addition you see the lightning's flash, and hear the thunder roll under your feet; which not unfrequently is the case. In a short time the air, which had been comfortably warm, became suddenly chill;—a dark black cloud from the western mountains came slowly towards us, and in a few minutes began to precipitate upon us its contents, in the form of hail, fleet, and heavy rain. We sheltered ourselves as well as we could under the shelvings of some rocks, but still were completely wet. The cold grew intense, and I wished that I had taken a thermometer with me, to have ascertained the degree of it. When the storm was over, we descended by a route somewhat different, with a view of botanising. While on the top of the moun-

tain, we observed that the rain, which came down in perpendicular streams from the clouds, went along the vallies, following in general their several windings among the hills; the clouds most probably being driven in those directions in which the current of air met with the least impediments, which would certainly be along the vallies.

‘ On our return to Rowardennen, we found that a great deal of rain had fallen during our absence.

‘ The perpendicular height of Benlomond above the surface of the lake, is 3,240 feet; and the average height of the lake above the sea, 22 feet, which, added to the former height, gives the perpendicular altitude of the mountain above the level of the sea, 3,262 feet. In height it is surpassed by Benevis, Benlawers, and some other mountains; but the difference is more than compensated by the elegance of its insulated situation, with respect to the neighbouring hills: its form being that of a huge truncated cone, and its appearance, from whatever part it is viewed, much more noble and magnificent than that of the just mentioned hills. The lower parts of the mountain, on the side next the lake, are finely skirted with wood.’ Vol. i. p. 58.

‘ The *alchemilla alpina*, or cinquefoil ladies’ mantle, grows upon all the upper part of the mountain. The *sibbaldia procumbens*, or procumbent silver-weed, distinguished by its tridentate leaves, grows in great quantity, even on the very summit. The *silene acaulis*, or moss catchfly, the leaves of which form a beautiful green turf, like a carpet, which is variegated with a fine purple flower, grows in large patches. The *rubus chamæmorus*, or cloud-berry, is found in great quantities, about half way up the south-east side of the mountain: the blossoms of this plant are of a purplish white, succeeded by a bunch of red berries, which are ripe in July, and have a flavour by no means unpleasant. These berries are much esteemed by many northern nations, but probably for want of finer fruits. The Laplanders bury them under the snow, and thus preserve them from one year to another. They bruise and eat them with the milk of the rein-deer. (Withering’s Botany.) The *azalea procumbens*, or trailing rosebay, the smallest of woody plants, was first found here by Dr. Stuart of Lufs, but is not very plentiful. The *trientalis Europæa*, or chickweed winter-green, the only British plant of the class Heptandria, grows in the woods near the base of the mountain. The *pinguicula vulgaris*; *narthesium ossifragum*; and *thymus acinos*, likewise abound. Very near the inn of Rowardennen are to be found great quantities of the *drosera rotundifolia*, or round-leaved sundew, and *drosera anglica*, or great sundew. These plants catch flies, by shutting up their leaves, and crushing them to death; in this they resemble the *dionæa muscipula*, or American fly-eater. For a more particular

account of the *Drosera*, see *Withering's Botany*, vol. ii. p. 325.
Vol. i. p. 62.

The lochs in this neighbourhood, which communicate with the sea, abound in herrings; and, in Loch Fyne, the quantity caught and cured is said to amount annually to upwards of twenty thousand barrels, each containing about seven hundred fish, valued at twenty-five shillings. We trust that Dr. Garnett's representation will take off the remaining restrictions on salt, that this useful condiment may be procured more easily, free of duty. Much of the misery of the Highlanders would be thus relieved. The cultivation of the potatoe has been highly useful, as the moist season, which destroys the Highlander's little harvest, is favourable to this nutritious root: with this and herrings they may subsist after the worst harvests.

In the Urchay, which falls into Loch Awe, is a valuable salmon-fishery; and the neighbouring mountain, Cruachan, rears its majestic head on the north-western side: it is the fabulous source of the Loch, in height three thousand three hundred and ninety feet, and in circumference twenty miles. The great body of the mountain is composed of a reddish porphyry; but, near the bottom, is found argillaceous schistus, intersected by veins of quartz and lapis ollaris. In this part of the tour there seem to be many peat-mosses, which were formerly lakes. At Oban, our author recommends the establishment of a royal dock or arsenal, as expeditions might be sent thence with ease and secrecy, since a westward course would not require winds from so many different quarters as are necessary to clear the Channel. Milford Haven, were it capable of being fortified, would however be a more convenient spot. Oban is too distant from the seat of government.

From our author's visit to Mull, we derive little addition to our stock of information respecting the country, the manners, or the superstitions of the Hebridians. We observe that he endeavours to revive the credit of the fabulous Ossian. In mentioning the Celtic songs, he remarks, 'that, in the glens of Mull, there are persons who can repeat several entire poems of Ossian: of this,' he adds, 'I have been assured by the ministers, and other gentlemen of veracity.' On another occasion he resumes the subject in the following manner, describing Glencoe, the glen of the Coe, the Cona of Ossian.

'Nor were our expectations, though highly raised by the reports we had heard, in any degree disappointed. The steep and rugged mountains, on whose sides the blue mists hung, and which were worn into deep furrows by the rapid currents that tumble down

them, together with the fertile valley, and the river winding through it, render this glen awfully grand and picturesque in an uncommon degree. The accompanying print will give a tolerable idea of this stupendous scene, though it is next to impossible to convey on a small scrap of paper any adequate notion of its grandeur. On the right is Malmor, a mountain celebrated by Ossian; on the left, Con Fion, or the hill of Fingal. The valley is closed by some other grotesque mountains, which were almost covered with mist, and which seem to shut the inhabitants of this romantic glen completely from the world.

‘ This celebrated glen was the birth-place of Ossian, as would appear from several passages in the poems of that bard. Any poetical genius who had spent the early days of his life in this glen must have had the same or similar ideas, and would have painted them in the same manner that Ossian has done; for he would here see nothing but grand and simple imagery—the blue mists hanging on the hills—the sun peeping through a cloud—the raging of the storm, or the fury of the torrent.

‘ This glen was frequently the resort of Fingal and his party. It seems to me wonderful, that any person who has travelled in the highlands, should doubt the authenticity of the Celtic poetry, which has been given to the English reader by Macpherson: since in almost every glen are to be found persons who can repeat from tradition several of these, and other Celtic tales of the same date. I cannot pretend to offer any evidence stronger than what has been brought forward. I trust, however, that the following extract from a letter which I received from Dr. Mac Intire of Glenorchay, on this subject, will not be uninteresting to the reader:

“ To the mass of evidence laid already before the public, by persons of the first respectability in the nation, I know of little that can be added. These tales we have been accustomed to hear recited from our earliest years, and they have made an indelible impression on my memory. In the close of the year 1783, and beginning of 1784, I was in London: for some time previous to that period, I had a correspondence with Mr. Macpherson, but not on subjects of Celtic literature. During two months that I continued in London, I was frequently with him at his own house, and elsewhere. We spoke occasionally about the poems, and the attempt made by Dr. Johnson to discredit them. I hinted, that though my own belief of their authenticity was unalterably fixed, still my opinion ever was, that he had never found the poem of Fingal, in the full and perfect form in which he had published it; but that having got the substance, or greatest part of the interesting tale, he had, from his knowledge of Celtic imagery and allusions, filled up the chasms in the translation. He replied, ‘ You are much mistaken in the matter—I had occasion to do less of that than you suppose—and at any time that you are at leisure, and wish to see the originals, tell me, and we will concert a day for going to my

house on Putney-heath, where these papers lie, and you will then be satisfied.' This conversation passed in presence of Dr. Shaw, a Scots physician, to whom he introduced me.

"I fully intended to avail myself of this offer, but have to regret that, from various avocations, and leaving London sooner than I thought I could, I was prevented from a sight and perusal of the original of these poems.

"Calling the day before I left London on the late general Mac Nab, a gentleman well versed in Celtic literature, and of unimpeached veracity and honour, who had lived long in habits of intimacy with Mr. Macpherson, I mentioned this circumstance to him, and my regret: he said he was sorry I had not seen the poems; that to him Mr. Macpherson had often recited parts of Fingal in the Gaelic, with various other tales, which brought to his remembrance what had given him so much gratification when a boy.' Vol. i. P. 283.

We wish not to revive this controversy, but must not suffer reasoning so vague and inconclusive to become important for want of censure. It is well known, that many can repeat entire poems *attributed* to Ossian, but not the poet of the fourth century, as the early translators wished their readers to believe. The poems recited are beautiful and wild, but frequently absurd and superstitious. Many detached parts are the same with those which were published by Mr. Macpherson; but it would be difficult to find poems of considerable length not debased by gross follies and the most ridiculous legends. In the passage transcribed there is a singular, guarded, peculiarity. 'It seems wonderful' (Dr. Garnett says) 'that any person who has travelled in the Highlands should doubt the authenticity of the Celtic poetry, *which has been given to the English reader by Macpherson,*' &c. Indeed this is the whole subject of doubt. No one, who has travelled there, doubts the existence of Celtic songs; but every one believes that the form and the embellishments have often been the work of the translator. We know that Mr. Macpherson had originals; but as such originals could not be procured *in a connected form* by others, they were supposed to owe much to his plastic hand, and every evidence that could be obtained added ten centuries to the æra of the reputed Ossian. The latter part of the argument is too trifling for remark. Dr. Garnett forgets to inform us that the appellation of Fingal's Cave in Staffa is equivocal, and that the real meaning is the harmonious cavern.

The miseries of the Highlanders are detailed at a painful length, and emigration is no longer surprising. This part of our author's tour merits particular notice; for the wretched situation of the inhabitants of these barren districts, where the

scanty sun, which their short summer affords, is often clouded by destructive showers, and the labour of the year destroyed in one fatal week, should draw forth the fostering hand of their natural protectors, the chiefs, and even attract the more general attention of government. Dr. Garnett has pointed out the proper methods in which each may exert his power: hitherto each has added to the difficulties which the ungenial climate produces.

Staffa and Icolmkill have been too often described to admit novelty of description. The grand basaltic pillars of the former were first noticed by Sir Joseph Banks; but on this subject we have already enlarged. Icolmkill must be still viewed with religious veneration, as the retreat of learning at a period when brutal violence checked, or uncivilised ignorance obscured, every improvement, every opening talent of the human mind. We see only the traces of what it was; but these are imposing and attractive. We will add the only novelties which occur in this part of the work.

‘ To the naturalist, this island is almost as interesting as to the antiquarian. The greatest part of the island consists of lime-stone; in some places it appears in the form of a very fine white marble, in others dove-coloured; besides the different pebbles mentioned in *Porta-currach*, some large blocks of jasper are found. Though Icolmkill is a secondary island, none of the primitive rocks being found in it, except in loose masses, yet the neighbouring small island, separated from Icolmkill by a very narrow sound, consists almost entirely of a coarse-grained red granite, resembling the Egyptian; with this granite, as has been observed, part of the sacred edifices have been constructed, as well as the huts of the present inhabitants. This island is called the *Isle of Nuns*, because the nuns resided here before Columba allowed them to settle in I.

‘ In the Bay of Martyrs is found hornblende, and in different parts of the island green and red jasper, with some specimens of zeolite. We have a curious specimen of zeolite investing lime-stone, in the museum of Anderson's Institution, which came from this island. The zeolite is in the form of the wax of a honeycomb, having the cells filled with limestone.

In the botanical kingdom is found the *pulmonaria maritima*, or sea bugloss, a beautiful plant, the blossoms of which are pink before they expand, but immediately change to a fine blue. The *eryngium maritimum*, or sea holly; these two plants grow plentifully on the north shore of the island, between *Porta-currach* and the hill of angels. The *cotyledon umbilicus*, or navel-wort, grows on almost every part of the ruins, both of the nunnery and cathedral. The *menyanthes trifoliatum*, or marsh trefoil, one of the most beautiful of our native flowers, and distinguished

by its woolly petals, grows in great plenty in the pond above the cathedral. A considerable part of the skirts of Dun-y is covered with the *anagallis tenella*, or purple-flowered money-wort. The *juniperus communis*, or juniper tree, is common on most of the hills, though of a very dwarfish size. The *salix Lapponum*, or Lapland willow, a very scarce shrub, grows not far from the marble quarry.' Vol. i. P. 267.

Dr. Garnett expatiates on the impropriety and impolicy of converting the Highlands to sheep-walks, since population forms the most essential riches of a nation, and a farm converted to sheep-walks requires comparatively few inhabitants. We doubt, however, whether his reasoning on this subject will bear the test of rigorous examination. The few that attend the sheep prove only a depopulation in a bleak barren country, where a greater number could scarcely support themselves, while the fleeces of their flock supply labour for numerous others, in more genial soils; so that in reality population gains, and the sum of happiness is much greater. The active energies which should fill our fleets and armies are indeed lost; but enough still remain to supply victims for ambition; and we know from sad experience that the manufacturer will not on that account be a worse soldier. When we reflect, too, on what we have lately had occasion to notice respecting the necessity of Spanish wool, and on what is now passing in the house of commons, we may consider a more ample supply of wool as a most desirable accession.

Few have travelled in Scotland without visiting the Fall of Foyers, a cascade from a greater height than that of Niagara. Our author has illustrated it with two plates, and given an exact statement of the height. That of the upper fall is seventy feet, and that of the lower two hundred and twelve, while the fall of Niagara is only one hundred and forty feet.

Of the remainder of the travels, from Inverness southward, we shall give, in a future number, a particular account, and then describe the beautiful decorations with which this tour is illustrated.

*The Sovereign. Addressed to his Imperial Majesty Paul, Emperour of all the Russias. By Charles Small * Pybus, M. P. one of the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury. Folio. 11. 1s. Boards. White. 1800.*

THE magnificence of this volume is answerable to its title. The folio size, the ample margin, the jetty ink, and

* 'A small poet,' say the critical punsters.

the cream-coloured paper; the beautiful frontispiece, where, like the cross that converted Constantine, the Russian crown hovers in heaven over the name of Paul, a design vague and unmeaning as a dream, and yet beautiful; all these may be expected when a lord of the treasury writes a poem to an emperor.

The poem is dedicated to the king, because he so eminently resembles his magnanimous ally, and because 'the author would probably have been less captivated with the character of a foreign prince, if his sentiments had not been habitually formed under the influence of that example, which is the pride and ornament of the British throne.' *Dedication.*

In the opening lines the emperor is thus addressed:

' O thou, great monarch of a pow'rful reign,
That more than doubles Europe's whole domain!
Whom larger empires own their sov'reign lord,
Than bow'd before the Macedonian sword.
Or gaz'd with trembling at the awful height
Of Rome's proud eagle in her utmost flight!
Say, can the sceptre's blaze, the golden globe,
The brilliant diadem, the gorgeous robe,
The courtly pageant, and the splendid train;
The strength of navies riding on the main,
The iron frontier, the embattled coast,
The waving banner, and the glitt'ring host;
The dread salute of cannon thund'ring loud,
The prostrate homage of a suppliant crowd;
Can all the pomp of pow'r and wealth combin'd
Raise up one genuine transport in the mind,
With balmy soothing tranquilize the breast,
Or give the slumbers of contented rest?
No: none of these can smoothe the troubled frown,
Or lull the cares that lurk beneath a crown:
Weak in themselves alone, their rays dispense
Fallacious seemings to the outward sense:
Their mental influence depends on this;
Are these the object, or the means of bliss?
But happy they, thrice happy, who profess
Their greatest blessing is the pow'r to bless,
Delight in mercy, study to be just,
And hold their sceptre as a sacred trust;
Not as the tyrant's persecuting rod,
But as the gracious instrument of God.
Where can ambition find so sure a way
To change a partial into gen'ral sway?
For when the duties of his high estate
Fill all his thoughts, his actions regulate,

Like him, whose worth adorns his Albion's throne,
 The monarch reigns in realms beyond his own :
 Through foreign latitudes his pow'r extends,
 And only terminates where virtue ends :
 From ev'ry clime exulting millions pour
 Their golden praise : his cumulating store
 Swells with the best of wealth ; and hourly draws
 The countless tribute of a world's applause.
 Hail then, exalted prince, whose high renown
 Adds a new jewel to the Russian crown !
 Imperial sov'reign, hail ! nor thou refuse
 This cordial off'ring from an English Muse,
 Who free from dread, from adulation free,
 Beholds that monarch realiz'd in thee,
 Lifts up the voice of truth, and sings from far
 The blest descendant of the mighty czar.' r. 9.

Here Mr. Pybus leaves Paul, that he may praise Peter. We must object to the unqualified panegyric here lavished upon this semi-barbarian, this mulatto in civilisation. When Burnet visited him, he offered brandy to the bishop ; but this, perhaps, may have been a Russian compliment. ' Other nations (says Kotzebue, in his *Benyowsky*) have love and wine ; these savages have only sensuality and brandy.' By the-king's desire, Evelyn accommodated the czar with his house. Every reader knows the delight which Evelyn took in cultivating his garden : he had a friendship for every shrub and every tree which it contained, and he has described his fine holly hedge with rapture. The czar and his Russian attendants laid the garden waste ! Peter had acquired civilisation enough to invite foreigners into his service ; but so much was he still the Russian, that they who entered his service became his slaves, and could not escape from it.

The father of the present emperor next occupies the poet's attention.

' And thou, ill-fated prince, whom discord gave
 An early victim to misfortune's grave,
 Whate'er thy frailties were, (and, who has none ?)
 Amply thy greater virtues shall atone,
 Whose heralds on the wings of mercy crost
 The trackless deserts of Siberian frost.
 Thee, coward cruelty in horrors dight,
 And mean suspicion that avoids the light,
 And persecution with tormenting flame,
 Shall ever execrate, and hate thy name ;
 While freedom's gratitude and pity's tear
 Shall drop a tribute on thy mournful bier.
 But Heaven will'd ! nor let thy realms deplore
 The mix'd event, that left one Peter more.' P. 24.

Who is this one Peter more? Can it be Paul? But let us proceed to the lines that follow.

'Yes! though a woman left; whose genius shone
With czarian lustre on the czarian throne;
And in whose manly reign amazement saw
The bitt'rest comment on the Salick law.
Her acts of publick zeal it well becomes
Historick care to mark in pond'rous tomes;
But where is he, the ablest bards among,
Who hopes to name them in the space of song?
Vain were the task: nor thou, great sov'reign, fear
The Muse shall trespass on thy patient ear
In weak attempts their bearings to rehearse,
Though filial fondness might endure the verse:
Nor can she deem it meet; for should as high
As Pelion pil'd on Ossa volumes lie,
And cloud-capp'd heaps of panegyrick raise,
This couplet would contain their sum of praise;
"The czar's example was her constant aim;
Her deeds were equal, equal is her fame." P. 25.

There is a strange inconsistency in thus praising together Catharine and her husband: the death of the czar is indeed lamented in wary and softened phrase.—'Discord gave him an early victim to misfortune's grave'—it was a 'mixed event:' but no hint of censure is bestowed upon

'The lustful murderers of her wedded lord.'

COLERIDGE,

She is, in the poetical language of Mr. Pybus, *the bitterest comment on the Salick law, and one Peter more*. How widely different is this from the high lyric strain that hailed the death of Catharine!

'No more on MURDER's lurid face
Th' insatiate hag shall gloat with drunken eye!
Manes of th' unnumber'd slain!
Ye that gasp'd on Warsaw's plain!
Ye that erst at Ismail's tower,
When human ruin chok'd the streams,
Fell in Conquest's glutt'd hour,
'Mid women's shrieks and infants' screams,
Whose shrieks, whose screams, were vain to stir
Loud-laughing, red-eyed Massacre!
Spirits of th' uncoffin'd slain,
Sudden blasts of triumph swelling,
Oft at night, in misty train,
Rush around her narrow dwelling!

Th' exterminating Fiend is fled—
 (Foul her life, and dark her doom!)
 Mighty army of the dead,
 Dance, like death-fires, round her tomb!"

COLERIDGE.

And now we come to the great Paul.

' Can pow'r and wealth such cordial transports bring,
 As happy subjects to their parent king;
 Or all the annals of the world evince
 A name more godlike than a patriot prince?
 ' Yes! there may be; and thanks to Heaven's care,
 England and Russia shew us that there are;
 There are those princely bosoms, that can feel
 The warmest passion for their country's weal,
 With Roman ardour burn, and plainly prove
 Their fav'rite object is their people's love:
 But still, unbounded by that narrow space,
 Their sphere of action is the human race;
 And their hearts kindle with a gen'rous flame,
 Beyond the lustre of a patriot's name.' P. 27.

Wherein consists the similarity of character which Mr. Pybus has discovered between Paul and our gracious sovereign? Paul has protected the emigrants—this also has been done in England, but it has been the honorable act of the nation, not the personal charity of the king. Our sovereign is engaged in a 'just and necessary war,' a *defensive* war, carried on, we are assured by his ministers, only for security. The Russian emperor is engaged in the same cause, but not for the same motives. Uninvaded, unmenaced by France, he volunteers against her; and, however magnanimous this conduct may be deemed, it would be a libel on our sovereign to pretend to discover any parallel between him and the Russian potentate in this respect. Paul is afraid of literature, and consequently hostile to it: by one of his edicts, *all* books that are prohibited in any other country, are *ipso facto* prohibited in Russia. Is not our king the friend and patron of science? Wherein does he resemble Paul? Let Russia be our ally;—let her receive our subsidies, and send us her Cossacks and her Calmucks to fight the cause of religion and of social order. The end sanctifies the means. But, by all that is dear to science and to liberty, by the name of Alfred, by the remembrance of Runnymede—let us have no parallels between England and Russia!

Mr. Pybus proceeds to apostrophise Christianity; but he does not wish to press, upon the great prince whom he addresses, the proof of these doctrines which his deeds confess.

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' ——— He will act the best, who best can feel.
 But there are feelings far beyond the reach
 Of all the noblest faculties of speech;
 And Greece and Rome must silently submit,
 Nor e'en for once avail the pow'rs of Pitt.' P. 29.

These feelings, which neither Greece nor Rome, nor the chancellor of the exchequer, can express, are the sorrow which the emperor Paul felt for the death of his preceptor.

The author then anticipates the deliverance of Europe by the exertion of this

' ————— Great monarch of a powerful reign,
 That more than doubles Europe's whole domain.'

In the postscript we are told that the brightness of this prospect has faded, and that a *species* of gloomy regret has at once overshadowed the continent of Europe: but this Mr. Pybus could not foresee, and inaccurate prophecy may be excused in a poet.

The concluding lines represent Paul, as well as his mother, to be 'one Peter more.'

' Thus, when entranc'd by intellectual night
 The czarian empire lay, with glorious light
 Immortal Peter rose—and now, where late,
 The dark horizon of a slumb'ring state,
 In cold privation of improvement's morn,
 Was wrapt in mists of prejudice and scorn,
 The dawn of science gleam'd; its warmth began,
 And rous'd the dormant faculties of man.
 The torpid soul, that indolent and slow,
 With icy current hardly seem'd to flow;
 The pulse of reason, that devoid of heat,
 In feeble motion stirr'd, nor seem'd to beat;
 The heart of glory, that oppress'd by pride,
 Had never throb'd with emulation's tide;
 Felt the mild influence of the genial ray,
 And rose in vigour with the rising day.
 Call'd into action thus, the gen'ral frame,
 Throve with new energies, and grew in fame;
 And still has grown and strengthen'd, as the sun
 Of Russia's majesty his course has run,
 Till at the last, in these auspicious days,
 Its prime denotes the zenith of his rays,
 The full resplendent orb of Paul's meridian blaze.' P. 40.

The poornefs of the Greek types in the notes surpris'd us, in a volume of such typographical elegance. They ought to have resembled the beautiful Greek of Mr. Bedford's *Musæus*.

After the specimens adduced, it is unnecessary to speak of the merits of this poem. The design and the execution, the sentiments and the language, are such as we expect when a lord of the treasury writes a poem to an emperor.

An impartial and succinct History of the Rise, Declension, and Revival of the Church of Christ; from the Birth of our Saviour to the present Time. With faithful Characters of the principal Personages, ancient and modern. By the Rev. T. Haweis, LL. B. & M.D. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Mawman. 1800.

THIS is a very extraordinary and interesting publication. Church history has exercised the pens of the most distinguished writers in every sect of Christianity; but in general we may observe that their attention was directed to the great political events in which churchmen were the actors, rather than to the silent progress of the Christian faith in various parts of the world, or to the effects of corruption and superstition on the number of true believers. The outline of the history of the church of Christ is to be found, we are fully persuaded, in the book of Revelations. The harlot clothed in scarlet represents the pollutions of the Romish church, whose notorious crimes fill the pages of our historians. The woman fleeing from the wrath of the dragon is the true church; but, from the nature of her flight, it will be difficult to trace her footsteps. It is the object of the author of the present work to write the history of the latter; and, however we may differ from him in many of his opinions, we highly applaud his design, and, in several respects, its execution; but we must point out the general tenor of the work, that our readers may exercise their judgement on the propriety of some prominent features in this publication.

The author is a distinguished minister of the church of England, is in possession of a considerable living, was countenanced by lady Huntingdon, was favored with the friendship of John Wesley and George Whitfield, and was principal agent in the plan for sending missionaries into the South Seas. It is needless to observe to our readers, that, from these facts, and from the particular use of the word evangelical, the author is to be considered as a leading member of that body of the clergy of the church of England which has assumed to itself the title of Evangelical. This observation must be kept in view in the perusal of the whole work, which on this account is the more interesting, as we may hence gather the chief opinions of a considerable part of the clergy, who are now of sufficient strength and importance to excite the parti-

cular attention of every friend to the church and its interests. In fact, the perusal of this work has opened our eyes more than any other publication to some occurrences that have taken place in the church within the last fifty years; and to understand them thoroughly we must go back to an earlier period.

The articles of the church of England were settled in the reign of queen Elizabeth. A latitude in the interpretation of them was first admitted in the reign of Charles the First; and the advocates for the innovation were styled latitudinarians. This latitude took deep root on the publication of bishop Burnet's interpretation of the articles, which was followed by a neglect, or almost contempt, of the controversies agitated in the early days of the church. Moral preaching naturally succeeded; subscription to the articles was modified in a variety of shapes, and at last almost explained away. In this state it was natural that two parties should be formed; the one strenuous for the articles in the most rigid sense, the other inclined to adapt them to the new opinions of the times. The former party ran into methodism, the latter into Arianism. Many clergymen of the former class imitated the customs and preaching of the itinerant methodist ministers; a considerable number of the latter class formed themselves into a society for relief in the affair of subscription; and a petition was presented by them to parliament for that purpose. The ill success of that petition, and the consequent secession of some of the clergy from the church, subjected the petitioners to some obloquy; and the church, alarmed with the cry of Socinianism and Arianism, began to look with a favourable eye on the more rigid subscribers, whose tenets and practices had been branded with the names of enthusiasm, fanaticism, and methodism.

In both cases there was danger of schism. On the one hand, the latitudinarian opinions were introducing schism on the subject of doctrine; on the other, the evangelical opinions, as they are now called, were making a schism on the subject of discipline. The latitudinarian clergy had no objection to the form of the establishment, if the doctrines of the church were modified to their standard: the evangelical clergy had less regard to the form or discipline of the church, provided the spirit of the doctrinal articles, or, as they would term it, vital Christianity, should be retained. Hence the latitudinarians remained in general, after the rejection of their petition, quiet members of the establishment; the evangelical clergy, from the natural desire of awakening the people, were more active in their measures; and their zeal has produced the erection of meeting-houses in various parts of the kingdom, whose increase

within the last three years, as specified in this work, far exceeds our calculations.

In this state of the church, the publication of a history whose evident tendency is to lower our opinions of episcopacy and to lessen the attachment to the peculiar discipline of the church of England, must be viewed with a jealous eye; and, as the acquiescence of an Arian in the discipline of the church seems by no means to justify his subscription to the articles, the most rigid belief of the doctrines of the church is no palliation for the insinuations against its discipline thrown out by one who has subscribed the articles and is in actual possession of a benefice. We therefore think it necessary to point out in marked terms our disapprobation of the liberty in which this writer has indulged himself, that, in bestowing due praise on the piety, liberality, historical knowledge, attachment to Christianity, labour, skill, arrangement, which distinguish this work, we may not give encouragement to the propagation of schism.

The history is divided into centuries, and in each century is assigned one chapter to the true spiritual church. The first volume contains the history of the first four centuries; in the second are comprehended the following twelve centuries; and the last volume brings the history down to the present times. The first and last volumes are concluded with appendices on uniformity in religion, on schism, on infidelity, on the present state of evangelical religion, on the means of extending the spiritual church of Christ, and on the call of captain Wilson to conduct the missionaries to the South Seas; and in these essays the peculiar tenets of the writer may be clearly discerned. In the introduction these tenets are given by himself; and they deserve the attention of our readers.

‘ Having, through divine mercy, obtained grace to be faithful—in providence received my education—and been called to minister in the church of England, I have embraced and subscribed her articles, *ex animo*, and have continued to prefer an episcopal mode of government; and I am content herein to abide with God, till I can find one more purely apostolic. But disclaiming all exclusive pretensions, and joined to the Lord in one spirit, with all the faithful of every denomination, I candidly avow my conviction; that the true church is catholic, or universal; not monopolized by any one body of professing Christians, but essentially a spiritual church; and consisting only and equally of those who, in every denomination, love our Lord Jesus Christ in sincerity. Respecting the administration of this church, I am not convinced that the Lord of Life and Glory left any precise regulations. His kingdom could alike subsist under any species of government; and having nothing to do with this world, was in externals to be regulated by existing

circumstances. Whether episcopacy, a presbytery, or the congregational order, be established as the dominant profession, it affects not the body of Christ. The living members, under each of these modes of administration, are alike bound to love one another out of a pure heart fervently; to indulge their brethren in the same liberty of private judgment, which they exercise themselves; and ought never to suffer these regulations of outward order to destroy the unity of the spirit, or to break the bonds of peace.

‘When I speak of episcopacy, as most correspondent, in my poor ideas, to the apostolic practice, and the general usage of the church in the first, and generally esteemed purer ages, let no man imagine I plead for that episcopacy, which rising very early on the stilts of prelatical pride and worldly-mindedness, has since overspread the earth with its baneful shadow; or suppose those to be the true successors of the apostles, who, grasping at power and pre-eminence over churches, which their labours never planted or watered, claim dominion over districts, provinces, kingdoms, beyond all power of individual superintendence. These all, every where, and in every age, have manifested the same spirit of antichrist; and that just in proportion as their usurpation of authority over the churches and the consciences of men, hath been most extensive, most exclusive, and most intolerant.’ Vol. i. P. ix.

Dr. Haweis then sketches his primitive church, founded by apostles and *itinerant evangelists*. The bishop and presbyter were in his opinion the same; and they were

‘not decked with earthly splendor, or gorgeous apparel; not ruling extensive dioceses, with vast revenues, but plain men, wearing often the garb of poverty and humility, in no eminence of birth, or of philosophical or scientific attainments; devoting their own little substance, as well as what the piety of the faithful entrusted to their care, to the noblest acts of charity; eminently self-denied in their own conduct, and exhibiting to their flocks the brightest examples of deadness to the world, and heavenly mindedness; employing their lives in unwearied labours for the souls of men; and affecting no pre-eminence above their fellows, but that which age, excellence, and superior service, naturally secured to them. Where the danger was so great, and the advantage so small, a man of God could only be constrained by conscience, and the suffrage of his brethren, or by ardent zeal for the glory of his Lord to undertake the awful charge. Such were the primitive bishops appointed by the great shepherd and bishop of souls. The imposition of hands confirmed the people’s choice, and acknowledged the divine call, placing these in the foremost rank of death and dignity.’ Vol. i. P. xiv.

The history is introduced by a slight sketch of our Saviour’s life, and properly dates its origin from the day of Pentecost,

in which the true church may be said to have been embodied. The labours of St. Paul are described in a spirited manner ; but, if the writer's remark, that 'every individual joined to the Lord in one spirit is called to be a saint,' may justify him in refusing that title to the apostle, it was scarcely necessary to observe so minutely, that 'the ridiculous distinction of a red letter in the calendar he would have treated as contemptibly as any man can possibly do it for him.' In speaking of him and of Peter, there is too anxious a desire to represent them as itinerants, and to introduce without reason the term *itinerancy*; but the sanction of their high authority is no precedent for the abuse of the term and the practice in later times. We observe with pleasure, however, that 'the trumped-up tradition' of Peter's visit to Rome is reprobated, and placed 'among the frauds against which whoever reads ecclesiastical history must be continually on his guard;' that the tales of John and Cerinthus, and Tertullian's caldron of burning oil, are placed in the Apocrypha; and that the traditions of Eusebius are deprived of their authority. It is justly remarked also, that the fruits of the spirit must be visible in the true church; but the notion, 'that the truly converted in general can remember the time when, the place where, and the persons by whom, they were first called into marvellous light, and received the saving knowledge of their crucified Lord,' may lead to some dangerous conceits. The idea that 'bishops, priests, and deacons, were to succeed to the high-priest, priests, and Levites,' is properly represented as unfounded; and the mode of church government which prevailed in this period is summed up in the following manner.

'As soon as a little society was formed of Christian men, a room was opened for their assembling, and the most apt to teach appointed to minister to them in holy things.

'He was a man of gravity, generally of the more aged, married, and having a family, approved by his fellows, and willing to devote himself to their service.

'His appointment was signified by prayer and imposition of hands of the apostle Paul, or some of the itinerant evangelists and the presbytery; and without this I meet no ordination.

'Every church exercised discipline over its own members, to admit, admonish, or expel.

'Before these itinerant evangelists all accusations against offending presbyters were brought—They, in conjunction with the congregation, regulated matters of order, and corrected abuses.

'These seem not to have had any appropriate district, but went about every where, chiefly under the direction of the apostle Paul.

'These great evangelists were usually supported by the churches; but often, like Paul, maintained themselves by their own labours.

During the first ages, the ministry was not appropriated to gentlemen or scholars. No man was bred to it as a profession, or went into it for a maintenance. They were pastors of a different stamp.

‘ The stationary presbyters or bishops during the lives of the apostle and his associate evangelists were under their superintendence. But it will appear very early in the second century, when this first race of great itinerants departed, that one among the ministers in every place began to have the name of bishop *κατ' ἐξουαν*, with presbyters his coadjutors, acting with him as one body.

‘ All ecclesiastical officers from the beginning, and for the first three hundred years, were elected by the people. Even Mathias was thus chosen to fill up the tribular number of the apostles.

‘ Deacons were instituted for the care of the poor, especially the widows; and deaconesses afterwards appear for the same purposes, though their institution is not expressly marked in the sacred canon. Originally they were ordained not for one congregation, but for the myriads at Jerusalem, whose widows were provided for out of a common stock.

‘ Every member of the primitive church seems to have made it a constant practice to lay aside weekly a certain portion of his income or gains, for the poor, the persecuted, or the Gospel, according to his ability; and hence, though generally the Christians were of the lowest and most indigent class of the people, the riches of their liberality abounded, and their means for this arose from their Christian character itself. Their industry was great, and they wasted nothing in extravagance of any kind, being by principle self-denied to all indulgences for themselves, that they might have to give to him that needed. And if all real Christians more conscientiously observed this rule still, it is amazing what a fund might be raised for the relief of the necessitous, and the furtherance of the Gospel.’ Vol. i. p. 93.

The last observation deserves to be impressed on the mind of every Christian; for if it were duly followed it would redound much to the honour of churches.

The gradual rise of prelatical power from this time to the age of Constantine, and with it the introduction of ceremonies, the change of the external church from a state of persecution to a state of exaltation, the cessation of miraculous powers, the introduction of monasticism, are all well described by our author. He is cautious in giving assent to the tales of the early writers: he reprobates with just severity the intolerance of several; he distinguishes between their virtues as Christians and their failings as men; and he has the wisdom to perceive that the abilities and energies of saints and bishops were often applied to very pernicious purposes. The name of a heretic, a name often imposed by the

more numerous party without reason, does not deter him from searching for the sincere belief and practice of Christianity among those who were reprobated by their brethren. Even in the dazzling splendor of the throne and the courtly flatteries of the hypocritical Eusebius, the enormities of the first pretended Christian emperor are detected; and with honest truth the writer justly exclaims—‘I would rather have been the meanest Christian in a cottage than Constantine the Great.’

An author who thus has the resolution to pierce the veil cast over the early ages of the church, may naturally be expected to do justice to its enemies; and the character of Julian is treated with greater respect than it is by the generality of Christians supposed to deserve. He judges too harshly, we would hope, in the comparison between that prince and our bishop Warburton, when he says, ‘I fear greatly, that, if Julian was not quite as good a Christian as the bishop, he was probably a better man; fully persuaded, that, had their situations been reversed, the bishop would have preferred persecution to tolerance.’ The character given of this emperor deserves to be placed before our readers; and when they reflect that it is drawn by one who is in the highest degree earnest for the Christian faith, they will see abundant reason to applaud him for his impartiality.

‘Julian, branded by historians as the apostate, hardly deserved that name: nor possessed much less of true Christianity than his uncle or cousin, whom, in the exemplariness of his moral conduct, he seems to have greatly exceeded.

‘The Christianity he had been taught scarcely merited the title. He beheld with horror his cousin’s hands defiled with the blood of his nearest relations; he saw all the religion of the court, consisting in the ambition and intrigues of sycophant bishops: and he was too far removed from the poor, and lowly Christians, to have ever discovered the evidence of its divine power; whilst he was tired out, and disgusted with the bitter quarrels and contentions about abstruse opinions; which those who were most violent, probably least understood. His philosophic friends, whom he caressed, used all their arts to deceive and influence him; strengthened his objections; and turned his hatred for the ill-usage of his family by professing Christians, against Christianity itself; the truths of which he had never truly known or embraced, and therefore the profession of it he easily renounced. From his earliest youth initiated in classic literature, his proficiency was considerable, as his labours were indefatigable. He produced several literary works, in which he displayed much vanity of science, but few traits of a deep and matured understanding. Seduced by the flatteries of the pagan sophists, he became the dupe of the most abject superstitions; and he betrayed as gross an ignorance of true philosophy, as of religion,

by his implicit belief, as well as by his diligent study, of all the absurdities of magic. His writings afford a strange mixture of genius and folly, of wit and weakness, of candour and duplicity. Yet his virtues deserve an honourable mention. He was as brave in the field, as diligent in the study; most exemplarily temperate, and sober; disdaining the indulgences of the animal man, and eager to acquire the title of philosopher; and what above all deserves a tribute of praise, in all his enmity and opposition to Christianity, he indulged nothing of that cruelty, which had so often marked his pagan predecessors. With sovereign power he maintained universal toleration. He favoured, indeed, the superstitions which he himself practised; but he compelled no man, by any pains and penalties, to conform to them. He condescended, as an author, fairly to enter the lists with argument and ridicule, as more potent adversaries had done before; and if accused of attempting to undermine the church, encouraging sectaries and schismatics; and shutting up the schools of philosophy from the Christians: I see nothing in all this inconsistent with the character of a perfectly honest but mistaken man; and only admire, that with the force of the empire at his beck, he should refrain from using weapons too congenial with the fallen spirit. His tolerant indulgence of all sectaries is but the duty of every governor, whatever his religion be; and the policy of it, as well as justice, deserves to be imitated. He did not much harm to true Christianity, by shutting up the philosophic schools; whilst he left to every man the free perusal of the word of God: and how he undermined Christianity, more than every rational philosophic Christian has done since, I see not. I admire his candour, his lenity, his tolerance: I pity his misfortune in being exposed to such advisers, and being destitute of understanding, as of grace, in adopting such senseless superstitions. Christians have abused him with an asperity, and infidels vaunted his excellencies with an exaggeration, of which he was equally undeserving.' Vol. i. P. 313.

The characters of the chief personages who distinguished this period of the history are drawn with equal fidelity. Origen is classed among the doubtful Christians; the pride of Cyprian is justly reprobated; and Novatian is vindicated. On the dispute between the two last chiefs is this just observation.

'The insolence, the abuse, and the condemnation, heaped on the devoted heads of all that presumed to differ from a bishop of Carthage, I utterly condemn, fully persuaded that the peace, the unity, and purity of the true church, will be a thousand times better preserved by leaving our brethren who may differ from us to themselves, bearing and forbearing, than by all the anathemas hurled against them by a Cyprian, a Gregory, or a Laud.'

The Arian heresy is properly attributed to the false maxims and proud science of the school of Origen; but, in describing

the character and doctrines of this celebrated heretic, our author, as in too many other places, introduces names of a much later date; and we must reprobate such assertions as these—
 ‘Dr. Clarke is as much a blasphemer as Socinus.’ The stand made by Athanasius is well described; and on the controversy at large Dr. Haweis exclaims with his usual impartiality, ‘Deeds were done on both sides so contrary to every principle of love and the spirit of meekness and truth, that I stand like a man in court between two witnesses swearing to contradictions.’ In the present days his opinion of the Athanasian creed will not be received with so much satisfaction; nor will the charity of the supposed author be admitted by numbers who believe in the greater part of his creed.

‘Athanasius was firm in the truth, and could not yield a tittle in point of doctrine, but he was no such bigot as he is represented, or uncharitable. The truths of God will not bear accommodation to a fancied candor or charitableness of judgment. I may possess the kindest spirit, and practice the fullest exercise of toleration and forbearance, and yet decisively declare that except a man believe the catholic faith he cannot be saved. In my view, the damnatory clauses of the creed, which bears his name, breathe the noblest exercise of true Christian charity.’ Vol. i. p. 307.

On the character of Augustin we perceive stronger marks of sound judgement; and there is a just comparison between his works and those of Edwards.

‘Augustin figures among the most eminent of the fathers, as an author; but a considerable portion of his writings will be found jejune, declamatory, and sometimes highly objectionable: and in the very point of the doctrines of grace, wherein he excels, there is more deep reasoning, solid argument, precision of language, and scriptural evidence, in one page of Edwards on Free Will, than in all the voluminous works of Augustin put together. His conduct respecting the Donatists will never find a parallel in the scriptures. His arguments against them shall be allowed all their real weight; but they are greatly weakened by calling in the sword of the civil magistrate, and the harsh syllogisms of fines and imprisonment. Surely such are not the weapons of our warfare. Yet is Augustin an eminent character; his principles evangelical, and the general tenor of his life highly exemplary. His little diocese of Hippo eminently profited by his labours, and, in a day of great decay, exhibited specimens of primitive Christianity.’ Vol. i. p. 337.

The fourth century closes with a church very different from that which began on the day of Pentecost. Its government is thus described.

‘The government of the church was quite new modelled. Instead of the people choosing their own bishops and presbyters, they

were no more consulted. The presbyters wholly depended on bishops and patrons: the bishops were the creatures of patriarchs and metropolitans; or, if the see was important, appointed by the emperor. So church and state formed the first inauspicious alliance; and the corruption which had been plentifully sown before, now ripened by court intrigues for political bishops of imperial appointment, or at the suggestion of the prime minister.' Vol. i. p. 340.

(To be continued.)

The Geographical System of Herodotus, examined; and explained, by a Comparison with those of other ancient Authors, and with modern Geography. In the Course of the Work are introduced, Dissertations on the Itinerary State of the Greeks, the Expedition of Darius Hystaspes to Scythia, the Position and Remains of ancient Babylon, the Alluvions of the Nile, and Canals of Suez; the Oasis and Temple of Jupiter Ammon, the ancient Circumnavigation of Africa, and other Subjects of History and Geography. The whole explained by Eleven Maps, adapted to the different Subjects, and accompanied with a complete Index. By James Rennell, F. R. S. &c. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Nicol. 1800.

THE author of the present work has distinguished himself by his industry in illustrating the geography of India. The office which he there enjoyed, and his other opportunities of collecting information, gave him extraordinary advantages for that department, and the public therefore seemed to be highly gratified by his work: but, with regard to other countries, Major Rennell can have access to few sources of information which are not open to every literary man; and one would naturally expect, from an author who endeavours to illustrate the geography of Herodotus, an intimate acquaintance with the Greek language, many delicate shades of which may convey various intelligence to a sedulous inquirer into a particular topic, while a general translation only conveys the general sense of the original.

The ingenious major, aware of this objection, has made an apology in the preface, which, though sufficient for some instances, is not completely applicable to others. What his own modesty has prevented him from urging, we may safely advance to counterbalance in some measure this disadvantage, namely, his profound mathematical study of the mechanical parts of geography, such as itinerary measures, the variations of the compass, the course of winds and currents, &c. all which knowledge he has often condensed upon the page of the father of history with powerful effect; nor is he less happy in ap-

plying modern information with such effect as to throw light upon the opinions of antiquity.

With every prepossession in favour of the author's skill and talents, we were a little surprised when we found more than seven hundred and fifty pages employed on such a theme. We should have expected a more lucid compression of learning; but, as there is gold in the mine, the reader must take the trouble of digging for it; and, to evince our candour, we shall begin with the author's apology, which he has himself thrown into the conclusion.

‘It is possible that some readers may have condemned the work, for its containing matter, in their opinion, foreign to the main subject; and others for its being, altogether, too diffuse. With respect to the first class, it may be remarked that any system, in order to be understood, must be regularly gone through; and it happens that the dryness of geographical detail is such, that a continued series of them would rather be referred to, than read: so that the intention of explaining a system would of course have been frustrated. It has therefore been the study of the author, to intermix with the geographical matter, such ingredients, as, whilst they served to consolidate the whole mass into a regular form, would also give it the most agreeable colouring: in other words, that by the addition of history, which, it is the proper office of geography to explain; by miscellaneous remarks and observations; and occasionally by remarks on the physical geography; he might supply in part that interest, which the generality of readers must ever find wanting, in books of science.

‘In respect to objections to the bulk of the work, taken absolutely, the author can only answer in the words of an eminent historian, that “he, who in the description of unknown things, affects too much brevity, seeks not so much that which should be plainly told, as that which should be passed over.” In effect, a great many of the notices afforded by Herodotus, could not be so well explained, or illustrated, as by a reference to the works of other authors; or by the introduction of foreign matter.

‘It is a remark of Polybius on this very subject of geography, that the ancient authors who had written concerning it, had fallen into so many errors, that it was necessary to enter into a full and deliberate examination of them; but, at the same time, he with great candour, allows, “that their labours deserve on the whole, rather praise than censure; and that their errors are ever to be corrected in the gentlest manner; since it is certain, that they would themselves retract or alter many passages in their works, if they were now alive.”

‘The author will receive that reward for which he has toiled, if the public, during the perusal of his work, have regarded it with the same sentiments, as those which possessed the mind of Polybius:

and which may be productive of more advantage in the present, than in the former case; since the author hopes that he may be enabled, in person, to retract or alter, what the discernment of his judges may condemn.' P. 745.

In our account of this work, we propose first to give the reader a general idea of its contents, and, lastly, to offer some remarks on particular passages, concerning some of which we hope the major will permit us to be dissentient. We detest despotism and monopoly in any branch of science, and must confess, that, when we read the author's angry note concerning a criticism in our review, we were led to imagine that he had more flatterers than friends. But this sensation was momentary. The experience that it is absolutely impossible to satiate any author with praise, is almost the sole cause why the names of the authors of literary journals are not communicated to the public. The smallest objection, the slightest hint, will inflame the self-importance of the generality of authors. Yet no utility could arise from such a journal, if it were a mere feast of praise; and our literature would be degraded to the insignificance of Italian flattery, in which a sonneteer could not be mentioned without being styled *illustrissimo*. Praise is a most precious commodity, and must not be squandered; for, if it be lavished, where will be the reward of merit? We shall therefore still claim absolute freedom of dissent, where we suppose that the major has fallen into mistakes attendant on all the energies of man. But, as our dissent shall be solely grounded on scientific motives, we trust that he will forget his spleen, and accept our observations with perfect cordiality.

We now proceed to exhibit a general sketch of this volume. In his preface, the author informs us, that he had several years ago undertaken the task of correcting the geography, ancient and modern, of that part of Asia which lies between India and Europe; 'in effect, the great theatre of ancient history in Asia, as well as of European commerce and communication in modern times.'

'This task he has some time since performed, to the best of his ability, and as far as his stock of materials admitted: but the work had grown to such a size, that it would have been an act of imprudence in an individual, to venture on so great an expence as the execution of the work, in all its parts, required. In the mean time, however, he has adventured so far, as to prepare the first division of it, consisting of the geography of Herodotus; and which, as preparing the ground for the remainder of the ancient geography, he now, with great deference, offers to the public; accompanied with maps necessary to its explanation.

'The remaining parts will consist of the ancient geography, as it

was improved by the Grecian conquests and establishments; together with such portions of military history, as appear to want explanation. Maps of ancient geography, on scales adapted to the purpose, will accompany it: whilst the modern geography, (in which the most prominent features of the ancient, will also appear) will be contained in a large map, similar in size and scale, to the four-sheet map of India, already in the hands of the public. It may be proper to remark, that, as the present volume forms a complete work of itself, so will each of the succeeding ones; they being no otherwise connected with each other, than as being in the same series. The same is to be understood of some large maps that are to accompany the volumes, but will be too large to be folded into them.' p. vii.

Major Rennell then proceeds to apologise for his ignorance of the Greek language, and to acknowledge the assistance which he has received from various respectable quarters.

The work itself is divided into twenty-six sections. The first section contains preliminary observations; in the second is a discussion of the itinerary stadium of the Greeks; the third discloses the sentiments of Herodotus concerning Europe; the fourth, those which relate to the western Scythia on the Euxine; the fifth treats of the countries bordering on Western Scythia; the sixth, of the expedition of Darius Hystaspes to that country. In the seventh section the author proceeds to describe the countries situated beyond western Scythia, on the east and north-east; the eighth relates to the general opinions of Herodotus concerning Asia, and the subject is continued in the next section; the tenth treats of eastern Scythia, or the country of the Massagetæ; in the eleventh and twelfth the major discusses the twenty satrapies of Darius Hystaspes; in the thirteenth, he examines the report of Aristagoras concerning the royal road from Ionia to Susia; and the next concerns the site and remains of ancient Babylon. In a digressive section (the fifteenth) the author considers the captivity and disposal of the ten tribes of the Jews (he should have said Hebrews). In the sixteenth he commences his account of Africa, according to the ideas of Herodotus; and the remaining sections relate wholly to that continent, the canals of Suez, the Nile, and Memphis; the Oases of Egypt and Libya, the temple of Ammon, the Syrtes, the antiquity of Morocco leather, &c. The twenty-fourth and twenty-fifth sections relate to the circumnavigation of Africa by the ships of Necho; and the last section presents some account of the voyage of Hanno along its western coasts. A list of eleven maps is subjoined, most of which are curious and interesting.

To the following observations respecting the credit of Herodotus we can safely assent.

‘ It is a common and just remark, that the authority of our author’s work has been rising in the opinion of the world, in latter times; which may be referred to the number of discoveries that have been lately made, and which are continually making, in the countries which he describes. It was ignorance and inattention therefore, that determined the opinions of his judges; a charge in which several of the ancients are implicated as well as the moderns. The same want of attention has confounded together, the descriptions of what he saw, with what he had only heard; and which he might think himself bound to relate. Mr. Wood speaks much to the purpose respecting this matter. He says, “were I to give my opinion of him, having followed him through most of the countries which he visited, I would say, that he is a writer of veracity in his description of what he saw, but of credulity in his relations of what he had heard.” We may add, that superstition made him credulous in believing many improbable stories; but love of truth prevented him from asserting falsehoods. The instances of gross superstition manifested by him are too numerous to be recounted; but superstition was also common to many other great characters.

‘ But his ignorance in certain points is infinitely more displeasing than his superstition: for it may be observed, that however distinguished our author may have been as an historian, geographer, and moralist, yet that as a man of science, and a natural philosopher, he ranks very low indeed; as is too conspicuous in several parts of his work. Such is his ignorance of the existence of snow in elevated situations in warm climates; Euterpe, 22; his belief that the sun was vertical in India before mid-day; Thalia, 104; and his very unphilosophical way of accounting for the swelling of the Nile; in which he talks of the sun’s being driven out of his course, &c. Euterpe, 24.

‘ It appears also, that he did not believe that the earth was of a globular form; which alone was sufficient to lead him into great errors. Says he, Melpom. 36. “I cannot but think it exceedingly ridiculous to hear some men talk of the circumference of the earth, pretending, without the smallest reason or probability, that the ocean encompasses the earth; that the earth is round, as if mechanically formed so; and that Asia is equal to Europe.” Again, Melpom. 42, although he believed that the ships of Nechao had circumnavigated Africa, yet it appeared incredible to him, that during the voyage they should have had the sun on their right hand. All which arose from his ignorance in matters of science. But wheresoever he speaks of history, or of morals, he fails not to give information and satisfaction: these being his proper walks.’ P. 5.

The major’s conclusion concerning the itinerary stadium of the Greeks is conveyed in the following terms.

‘ It has been observed that the mean stade of 718 to a degree, is

somewhat above 500 English feet (that is $505\frac{1}{2}$); and 500 Grecian feet are equal to about $503\frac{1}{2}$ English). A pace was no doubt the elementary part of itinerary measures, amongst the Greeks, as well as other nations; and the natural pace is nearly about 5 feet. Is it not probable that the integral measure, the stade, was made up of 100 of these? and that hence arose the stade of about 500 feet, in ordinary use? Some, we know not on what authority, have fixed the Grecian pace at more than 6 of our feet. But it would appear that they took the orgyia for a pace, although it seems to have been a fathom. D'Anville's *Mes. Itin.* p. 43. It is not probable that any natural pace ever extended to the length of 6 feet, or perhaps to more than five. The Roman pace was five of their feet, answering to 4 feet 10 inches of our measure.' P. 33.

Under the second division of this estimate we shall consider several objectionable passages in our author's ideas concerning the Scythians; but we cannot here omit to mention what has impressed us deeply in the perusal, namely, that he has, in this department of his work, been seduced from the proper mode of inquiry, and has, through a hundred pages, been led into the portentous error of confounding the Scythian nations, of the first dawn of history, with the Tartars of recent times. On such topics, very profound learning becomes indispensable, and no apology can be accepted for the defect. The fact is, that, on the great concussion of nations which preceded the fall of the Roman empire, the ancient Scythians were expelled by the Huns, a Tartaric tribe, who were succeeded by the Mongols, &c. We wish that the major had only glanced at De Guignes, and he would have seen that he was plunging himself into inextricable difficulties, and errors absolutely incalculable, though as palpable to the majority of literary men, as if he had confounded the Spaniards in Peru with the original inhabitants, while, perhaps, four different races of people had possessed that region before the Americans went thither.

We sincerely wish that the section concerning the Scythians had been totally omitted; but the sections respecting the satrapies, or governments, into which the Persian empire was divided, will afford pleasure even to the most learned reader.

In the section which relates to Babylon, the major gives an ingenious theory concerning that celebrated city, and a curious map of the circumjacent regions. He shows that many remains of ancient Babylon exist near the modern Hillah, on the Euphrates, about sixteen miles south of Bagdad. In the section concerning the ten tribes, he attempts to show that only certain classes of the Hebrews were carried away and settled in Media,—an opinion which will not be accepted, because the ideas of the most learned commentators, and all the Jewish

traditions, are united against it. On the opposite side, even a solitary argument might perhaps be sufficient, as the name of Hebrews expired after the captivity of the ten tribes and a half, and that of Jews, from the remaining tribe of Judah, was substituted. We suspect that divines will as strongly object to this section, as men of real learning will to those which regard the Scythians.

One of the most interesting divisions of the work relates to the knowledge which Herodotus had of Africa.

‘ The third and last division of our subject is Africa, or Lybia. Concerning this continent, it may be said, that our author was aware that it contained a greater extent of space than either of the others; although his knowledge of it, in detail, was more confined. Here it may be remarked, that, if his native city, Halicarnassus, be taken for a centre, it will be found, that a radius of 1000 British miles will circumscribe the whole extent of his geographical knowledge in detail. It may also be remarked, that the circle so described, passes through, or near to, the several points of Babylon, Syene, Carthage, Corsica, the upper part of the Danube, the forks of the Borysthenes, and the mouth of the Tanais. So that it included Greece, Italy, Thrace, Scythia, Colchis, Asia Minor, Assyria, Palestine, Egypt, Lybia, and the country of the Garamantes. It will be found, almost invariably, that beyond this range, our author grows more and more obscure and uncertain, as we advance in any line of direction whatsoever: or, if any thing, he grows more obscure on the European, than on the Asiatic side. But of the absolute measure of extent known to him, by report, Africa contained a greater proportion, than either of the other two continents: or it may possibly be, that the space known, in that mode, in Africa, may have equalled that, known in Asia, and Europe collectively.

‘ These being the circumstances of the case, it will appear that the parts of Africa best known to our author were those along the middle and eastern basins of the Mediterranean sea; including Egypt and Lybia, with Fezzan, and other Oases, in the Lybian desert. Beyond these regions, his descriptions grow less circumstantial; as is the case of those of the upper part of the course of the Nile; the course of the Niger; the country about mount Atlas; and the position of the promontory of Soloeis. And, finally, he carries us into the regions of darkness, of fable, and even of absurdity, in his descriptions of the Macrobian Ethiopians, and the people of Nigritia; of the fountains of the Nile, and the operation of the sun, on its waters, &c. In fact, the same cause that allotted a place, in his history, to the description of the ants that were said to dig up gold, in India; and to that of the mode of collecting cinnamon in Arabia; namely, the difficulty of getting

at the truth; gave occasion also to the description of the table of the sun, in Ethiopia.' p. 409.

We cannot withhold from our readers major Rennell's sentiments relative to the source of the Nile.

'That source in Abyssinia, called by Mr. Bruce and by some others before him, the head of the Nile, appears to be, in reality, nothing more than the eastern, and least remote; as well as the least in point of bulk; of the two principal branches of the Nile, which unite below Sennar. Concerning this fact, we shall adduce some evidence, which although presumptive only, cannot be disproved by any positive evidence; since no such exists: and it is no inconsiderable point in it, that Mr. Bruce himself, although undesignedly, has furnished a principal part. We begin with M. Maillet.

'This gentleman collected his information from travellers; and there is no reason to suspect a design to mislead, having himself no system to support. Nor does he pretend to have any correct ideas respecting the geography of the upper part of the Nile, but relates merely what he had heard, without comparing the evidence. Nay, he even supposed the Nile to rise in Abyssinia; for by the lake Gambea, he doubtless intended Dambea, the Tzana of Bruce and others; but then he appears to confound it with the lake of the western branch. The chief point in his description, is, that at two or three journies below Sennar (it should rather be seven or eight) the Nile, or Abyssinian branch, receives a great river, named Bahr Abiad, (or the White river), which he says is at least as considerable as the Nile. He says moreover, that it runs nearly parallel to the Nile, at the distance of 12, 15, and twenty journies from it. He does not, however, pretend to fix the source of the White river: he only remarks that it is easy to perceive that "the source of the Nile is not unique; and that its origin is not beyond the equator." (Desc. Egypt, pages 40 and 41.)

'Mr. Bruce's words are the following. "The river Abiad, which is larger than the Nile, joins it here, &c.—Still the Nile preserves the name of the Blue river—The Abiad is a deep river: it runs dead, and with little inclination, and preserves its stream always undiminished, because rising in latitudes where there are continual rains, it therefore suffers not the decrease the Nile does, by the six months dry weather;" (vol. iv. 516.) Thus Mr. Bruce goes beyond M. Maillet, by allowing the White river to be of greater bulk than the Nile: but what is more, he admits that it always continues in the same state: whilst the Nile suffers a diminution half the year. He says moreover, that its bed has little descent, whence it may be concluded that it runs through its own alluvions in that part; which particular implies a considerable length of course. But Mr. Bruce accounts for its bulk, and equal state, from the continual rains that fall in the countries contiguous to its

source; which is saying in other words, that it springs from a different region from that which gives rise to the Abyssinian branch; whence by his account, the source of the White river should be very remote from that of the Blue river, in Abyssinia. But what says his map? There, the limits of the periodical rainy seasons lie between sixteen degrees of latitude; and those of the perpetual rains, between 4 degrees; on each side of the equator. There also, the source of the White river is placed in 8° north, and that of the Blue river in 11° only, with a difference of meridians of no more than $2\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$: and one of the springs of the latter is even near the 8th degree. Do these differences then constitute different regions? We may add, that the White river is drawn on his map, much smaller than the eastern branch; which differs, as we have seen, totally from the description!

‘The fact we should conceive clearly to be, that the White river has a much more distant source than the other. Some light is thrown on this particular, by Maillet’s saying that the White river runs nearly parallel to, and at the distance of 12, 15, and 20 journies from the Nile; which can only be true of two rivers that spring at a great distance from each other. We are of opinion; therefore, that Mr. Bruce, who saw the White river, has admitted its superior bulk, and state of fulness, at all seasons; properties which the other branch does not possess: (as to its being in the same state, all the year, that we cannot suppose of any tropical river;) and hence, as he appears not to have made out his system of a constant rainy season, to supply the river in question, the reader will probably be inclined with us, to suppose, that a stream, at all times confessedly larger than another, has, in all probability, a more remote source.’ P. 436.

The major might have added, as we have remarked on a former occasion, that the ancients totally distinguish the Abyssinian river from the Nile, as they term the former the Astapus, a name seemingly connected with the Astraboras, another river, which flowed by Meroë. He concludes (p. 441), “that the distant source of this celebrated river is certainly not in Abyssinia, but in some country to the westward of it.” He would here certainly have added the irrefragable testimony of Mr. Browne; but it appears, from p. 480, that Mr. Browne’s work only appeared when the seventeenth section was in the press.

‘Since this section went to the press, the author has had the satisfaction to peruse Mr. Browne’s Travels in Africa; which, he conceives, will be classed amongst the first performances of the kind. The aids it brings to geography are great, and will probably lead to further discoveries; as it forms a link between Abyssinia on the east, and Bornou on the west. Moreover, it confirms, in a great degree, two positions advanced in the present system of African

geography: first, that the Niger does not join the Nile: and, secondly, that the most remote head of the Nile is not situated in the quarter of Abyssinia, but far to the south-west of it.' P. 480.

The following observations concerning the alluvions of rivers present one among many instances of the major's happy application of recent knowledge to ancient circumstances.

'No doubt, when we carry back our ideas to the time when the sea washed the base of the rock, on which the pyramids of Memphis stand, the present base of which is washed by the inundation of the Nile, at an elevation, most probably, of 70 or 80 feet, above the surface of the same sea; we are lost in the contemplation of the vast interval of time, that must necessarily have elapsed since the foundation of the Delta was first laid. But, appearances speak too clear a language to be misunderstood: and we are borne out in the supposition that the Delta has been formed piece-meal, by a process which we shall now endeavour to describe. The following may accordingly be taken, as a specimen of the progress of alluvion; and which may be seen, in all the different stages of the process, at the mouth of any large river, that deposits rapidly, and plentifully.

'All rivers preserve, to a certain extent of space, which is proportioned to the velocity of their streams, a current of water, into the sea, beyond the points of land, that form their embouchures; when, by the continued resistance of the sea, they at last lose their motion. The mud and sand suspended in these waters, during their motion, are deposited, when that motion ceases; or rather, they are gradually deposited, as the current slackens: according to the gravity of the substances that are suspended. This deposition, then, will form a bank or shallow, in the sea; and which will be of a fan-like shape, consistently with the form, in which the water of the river disperses itself. This bank is of very considerable breadth; and is, of course, constantly on the increase, in height, as well as extension: and the additions constantly made to its breadth, will be on the side towards the sea. Until the bank rises up nearly to the surface, the river water which is continually poured into the sea, escapes freely over it: but when the bank has risen so high, as to inclose the water in a kind of lake, it is then compelled to force its way through the bank: although the passage will be both narrow and shallow, whilst the bank remains under water. This passage is technically named a bar: for such it is, in respect of the channel of the river, although it be the deepest part of the entrance to it.

'The position of this opening through the bank, will be regulated by the direction of the stream of the river, at its termination in the sea; and this direction, again, by the prevalent motion of the sea, along the coast; the mouth of the river always falling obliquely into the line of the sea current. Accordingly, when the river enters the sea obliquely, the bar will be at one side of the bank;

and on that side which is the farthest down, in respect of the sea current. But if the river enter the sea, in a line perpendicular to its shore, the opening, or bar, will be through the middle of the bank.

‘ As the bank rises to the surface, the opening increases in depth and width, until it becomes absolutely a continuation of the course of the river; since its waters require the same breadth and depth to escape here, as in the upper parts of its course. And thus the upper part of the bank becomes gradually a portion of the firm land; whilst the outer part goes on accumulating, and the bar is gradually removed farther out: in effect, there will be a repetition of the same order of things. And hence it will clearly appear, that the bank thus laid in the sea, by the current of the river, is, in reality, the germ of the growing alluvion.

‘ The bars are usually swept away every season, by the periodical flood; which, although it cannot rise to a higher level than the sea, is increased in velocity, by the increase of the body of water, above: and also by that of its descent; as the flood swells to a greater height above, and therefore forms a slope towards the sea. These floods also bring the greatest addition to the growing alluvion: and, not unfrequently, change the direction of the channel, and with it, of course, the position of the bar: their depositions being laid farther out in the sea, by reason of the greater velocity of the current.

‘ Having endeavoured to explain the mode in which the alluvion gains on the sea, we shall next endeavour to explain the manner in which the changes and modifications of the existing alluvions are wrought.

‘ The alluvions thus formed in the sea, are, in their original state, flat, and are also on a level with the ordinary surface of the sea: but as the surge repels that part of the deposited matter, which rises to the surface, it will be raised somewhat above the level: and as this agency has regularly operated on all the new-made alluvion, it must have formed one continued level, but for the interposition of the periodical floods, which have formed it into a regular slope, corresponding with its own.

‘ As the alluvion, then, is extended into the sea, so is its level gradually raised into a slope: an operation that is constantly going forward, but which cannot keep pace with the extension, because every addition to it occasions a deficiency in the slope.

‘ Until the new formed alluvion was considerably raised, it must have partaken very much of the character given it by Herodotus; who says, that in ancient times, “the whole of Egypt, except the province of Thebes, was one extended marsh:” Euterpe, 4: and that when “the Nile rose to the height of 8 cubits, all the lands above Memphis were overflowed.” (Eut. 13.) Both of these traditions clearly point to a state of things that had existed; although, probably, at a period too remote to be fixed: for there must have been a time when the Delta was not only a marsh, but was even co-

vered with water; and when the sea must have advanced so near to the site of Memphis, as to allow the annual flood to rise no higher than 8 cubits, or 12 to 14 feet, at that place. He afterwards remarks that it rose 15 or 16 cubits in his time; which was the natural progress of things: as the point of contact of the land waters, with those of the sea, was removed farther out.

‘ So long as the alluvion of the Delta remained in the state of a marsh, the waters of the Nile, through the want of declivity to carry them off, and the pressure of the sea water from without, when the river was low, may be supposed to have formed a tissue of canals, interspersed with lakes and marshes. But when the land began to acquire some degree of solidity in the upper parts of the Delta, canals, in the nature of drains, would be formed by the hands of men, and dykes raised along the banks of rivers, in order to exclude the redundant waters from the appropriated lands. And this is probably the period referred to by Herodotus, when he describes “the vast and numerous canals by which Egypt is intersected;” and which he attributes to Sesostris. Euterpe, 108. He was also told, that the same prince made a regular distribution of the lands of Egypt, assigning to each Egyptian a square piece of ground; and that his revenues were drawn from the rent, which every individual annually paid him.

‘ As the land rose by depositions, the waters would naturally confine themselves to fewer channels; since the land, when in a firmer state, would require a greater force to divide it. At a time when the upper part of the Delta had acquired a degree of firmness and elevation, we learn from our author, that three natural channels, alone, conveyed the waters of the Nile to the neighbourhood of the sea; a quarter in which the alluvial land must ever be regarded as in an imperfect state of formation. At present, two alone convey it to the same quarter, during the season when the river is not swollen; and one of these is growing shallow. Can it be doubted, then, that a delta is (comparatively speaking) land in an imperfect state of formation; that the natural progress toward completion is that of the river’s confining itself to fewer channels; and that the inundation, from being a complete mass of water, spread uniformly over the country, becomes merely an overflowing of the river, extending to a certain distance, and forming the country adjacent to each bank, into a slope of several miles in breadth, of which the highest part is the crest of the bank itself; from the circumstance of its depositing more sediment near the bank, than at a distance from it? But as long as the alluvion continued too flat to communicate a sufficient velocity to the river, when in its low state, it would continue to separate itself into many different streams, although one of them would probably surpass all the rest in bulk. On the above principle, then, as the greater slope, described in page 485, extends itself downwards, the Delta ought to retire from it: or, in other words, the river, in its course through the high level, should flow unique;

and the base of the Delta should gradually contract : and this, we trust, will be satisfactorily proved in the sequel.' p. 488.

Observations of similar curiosity and importance also occur with regard to the currents in the sea on the African coasts, which the major has the high merit of first applying to the illustration of general geography. The section relative to the Oases is replete with information ; but we were surprised to find the major (p. 563), in opposition to his own map of Africa, assuming the position, which we had before asserted, that Santaria is the same with Siwa. We wish that he would imitate our candour, and, when he points out our mistakes, at the same time give us credit for our discoveries.

We were yet more surprised (in the twenty-first section) to find that the major was employing a whole army of engineers, and a battery of mathematical calculations, to establish this very point, which had long ago impressed us, from comparing modern travels with the Arabic geographers. He has however the merit of demonstrating that the temple of Jupiter Ammon was really discovered by Mr. Browne ; a circumstance since confirmed by Mr. Horneman, who, we sincerely hope, will be preserved from numerous dangers, and return with ample information concerning the interior of Africa. At the same time, we must express our wish that the major would in future abandon a tone of decision when treating of so doubtful a science as the geography of distant regions ; for he will frequently find that the erection of mathematical principles upon sandy foundations is a most dangerous abuse. We particularly allude to his calculations upon diurnal journeys, in themselves uncertain, as has been lamentably proved in the recent discovery of the latitude of Mourzouk, which differs no less than two degrees, or near one hundred and forty miles, from the major's mathematical demonstrations. Such misapplications of mathematical procedure are the more perilous, as they may disguise the grossest error under the mask of the most authentic truth. Suspense is always unpleasant to the human mind, and a young writer may be pardoned for being a stranger to the learned ignorance recommended by Mr. Gibbon ; but even the formal engraving of a map gives it an aspect of reality ; and it is far more safe totally to omit what is uncertain, than, by giving ideal rivers and positions, to mislead the traveller, and perhaps induce him to propagate unintentional error. If we suppose, for instance, that a river is laid down in any imaginary direction, a traveller may be induced to lose his time, and perhaps his life, in search of a non-existence ; while, perhaps, if he had only trusted to his own spirit of inquiry, he might have made a real and important discovery.

The major (in page 679) computes that a day's sail among the ancients did not exceed thirty-five miles. On this and other occasions, he mentions the voyage of Nearchus without even a hint that the learned and respectable Dr. Vincent has written one word on the subject; and the translator of Hanno's voyage is only once mentioned. These circumstances seem to favour of a monopolising spirit, and to imply that the major's greatness is not only super-eminent, but solitary; and that, as Pope said of Addison, he wishes to stifle his brethren and reign alone.

On the subject of the voyage of Hanno, we expected that the major would have used the work of Gosselin, which he might have procured a twelvemonth before his own work made its appearance. On this and other occasions we have still deeply to regret the major's want of bibliographical knowledge. In treating of Babylon, he borrows his account of Beauchamp's discoveries from an English magazine, apologising for his ignorance where the originals can be found, while they first appeared, if we mistake not, in the *Journal des Savans*, and were thence transcribed into that common journal, the *Esprit des Journaux*.

As we have the advantage of possessing Gosselin's work, we shall take the opportunity of giving a cursory collation of his sentiments on the subject. Gosselin supposes that the voyage of Hanno did not extend beyond Cape Non; and he infers that the island of Cerné is now Fedal. Major Rennell, on the contrary, supposes that the southern Horn, or termination of the voyage of Hanno, was Sherborough Sound! *Non nostrum est tantas componere lites*. We have little doubt that Gosselin has too much restricted the voyage of Hanno; and perhaps major Rennell has extended the course too far; but, of the two opinions, we prefer the latter. In discussing the inland geography of the ancients, for instance that of Scythia, it is safe and proper to restrict the boundaries; but this observation cannot be equally applied to maritime discoveries, in which a ship may pass from one headland to another without any knowledge of intermediate regions. The major infers that the island of Cerné is that now termed Arguin near Cape Blanco; yet Ptolemy places it midway between the Strait of Gibraltar and the Canary Islands. The major supposes that Madeira is the *Pœa* of Ptolemy; and, if so, Cerné must have been one of the Canary Islands. It is probable that Ptolemy, as well as more modern geographers, sometimes put down the same object under different names, and sometimes in one latitude, sometimes in another, just as he happened to calculate the day's sail or the day's journey. That geographer might also confound intelligence of remote periods, and deposit on

his maps in a mathematical form the same island or the same region under different names and with different longitudes and latitudes. But this subject would require a dissertation, and we have already exceeded our proposed limits. We shall therefore conclude with a few remarks on this last section, that there may be no occasion to return to this particular subject in a future article. When the major observes (p. 729), that, if Cerné was only five stadia in circumference, it could not have admitted a city and colony, he certainly forgets Tyre. The islands in the Gulf of Bissago (p. 730) can hardly be identified with the single large island mentioned in Hanno's voyage, rendered remarkable and easily distinguished by a lake of salt water. When the major proceeds in the next page to explain this away by alluvial changes, he only shows that the difficulty is very great; and when we learn from his note (p. 734) that the general maps of Africa err several degrees of longitude in the extent of the Guinea coast, we have the less occasion to wonder at any ancient errors. His opinion, that the *Horns* of Hanno were bays or inlets and not promontories, as has been always supposed both in ancient and modern times, we shall not defend, but must rather deplore his deficiency of knowledge in the learned languages. Of Bougainville he observes that 'his judgement appears to have forsaken him entirely;' but the subject is so full of difficulties, that any rigid censure cannot justly be applied even to the grossest mistakes which may arise in its illustration.

(To be continued.)

Essays on the Picturesque, as compared with the Sublime and the Beautiful; and, on the Use of studying Pictures, for the Purpose of improving real Landscape. By Uvedale Price, Esq. Vol. II. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Robson.

WE have often noticed Mr. Price's peculiar doctrines, and examined the first volume of these essays in our XXIII^d (N. A. p. 426). We thought we perceived a more conciliating manner in the letter to Mr. Repton, intended as a supplement to the essays, and hoped for a little favour for the trimmed lawn and unbroken banks; but Mr. Price starts again into his former doctrines, and retains with rigour every part of his own system.

Our readers will recollect, that this author opposes the doctrine and practice of Brown, in giving to grounds of every kind the sameness and monotony derived from an exquisite polish; contending, that the picturesque requires management

of a different kind—the ragged borders of the lake, the wreathed roots of an aged tree, the high-banked lane, the lines sharpened by abrupt sinuosities. In objection to this we observed, that the scene at home is usually expected to be adorned with greater neatness; that there we seek repose; that the irregularities which the picturesque requires fatigue the eye and ruffle the pleasing calm which we expect near our habitations. Having premised these leading points, which are applicable to the author's doctrines and our opinions in this article, we will follow the elegant and ingenious essays in a line as smoothly flowing as Mr. Brown himself could have devised, and as distant from the sharp returns, the picturesque poignancy of criticism, as even Mr. Price could wish.

The first essay is on artificial water. It is truly excellent, and may be read with advantage even by a follower of Mr. Brown. In fact, a lake must always be in some degree artificial; for it must be at least kept to an uniform level, and the rival systems will differ only with respect to the outline, whether it should be smoothly polished or left in its natural ruggedness. The broken rock, the half-discovered antique root, &c. certainly depend on the nature of the surrounding scenery; and our author, when he speaks of these in such general terms, falls into as great an error as his antagonist, who would clump a forest and polish a mountain. Yet Mr. Price's ideas of adorning the usual smooth regularity of these artificial lakes, under some restrictions, are very ingenious.

‘It may be objected to the style I have recommended, that, from the awkward attempts at picturesque effect, such fantastic works would often be produced, as might force us to regret even the present monotony. I have no doubt, that very diverting performances in roots, stones, and rock-work, would be produced, and that alone I should reckon as no little gain; for who would not prefer an absurd, but laughable farce, to a flat insipid piece of five acts? There is, however, another very essential difference. In a made river there is such an incorrigible dulness, that unless the banks themselves be totally altered, the most judicious planting will not entirely get the better of it: but let the most whimsical improver make banks with roots, stones, rocks, grottos, caverns, of every odd and fantastic form, even these, by means of trees, bushes, trailing plants, and of vegetation in general, may in a short time have their absurdities in a great degree disguised, and still under that disguise, be the cause of many varied and striking effects: how much more so, if the same materials were disposed by a skilful artist! There are, indeed, such advantages arising from the moisture and vegetation which generally attend the near banks of water, that even quarry stones simply placed against a bank, however crude their first appearance, soon become picturesque; mosses and weather-

stains (the certain consequence of moisture), soon enrich and diversify their surface, while plants of different kinds spring forth between their separations, and crawl and hang over them in various directions. If stones thus placed upright like a wall, nay if a wall itself, may by means of such accompaniments have an effect, what an infinite number of pleasing and striking combinations might be made, were an improver, with the eye of a painter, to search for stones of such forms and tints as he could employ to most advantage! were he at the same time, likewise to avail himself of some of those beautiful, but less common flowering and climbing plants, which in general are only planted in borders, or against walls! we see what rich mixtures are formed on rocky banks, by common heaths and furze alone, or with the addition of wild roses and wood-bines; what new combinations might then be made in many places with the Virginia creeper, periploca, trailing arbutus, &c. which though, perhaps, not more beautiful, would have a new and more dressed appearance! Many of the choice American plants of low growth, and which love shade, such as kalmeas, and rhododendrons, by having the mould they most delight in placed to the north, on that sort of shelf which is often seen between a lower and an upper ledge of rocks, would be as likely to flourish as in a garden: and it may here be remarked, that when plants are placed in new situations, with new accompaniments, half hanging over one mass of stone, and backed by another, or by a mixture of rock, soil, and wild vegetation, they assume so new a character, such a novelty and brilliancy in their appearance, as can hardly be conceived by those who only see them in a shrubbery, or a botanical garden. In warmer aspects, especially in the more southern parts of England, bignonias, passion-flowers, &c. might often grow luxuriantly amidst similar accompaniments; these we have always seen nailed against walls, and have but little idea of their effect, or even of that of vines and jessamines, when loosely hanging over rocks, and stones, or over the dark coves which might be made among them.' P. 46.

In the management of water, as leading the eye to beautiful objects, and concealing those less pleasing to which the attention would be otherwise led, as well as in the management of a natural river, Mr. Price displays an accurate and refined taste. But, in the banks of his artificial water, he still wishes to leave the little angles, the miniature bays and promontories, the fringe of rushes or of plants, which, we think, give the appearance of carelessness and neglect. We must still recur to our original principle, that, at home, all should be ornamented and polished, but, at a distance, more wild and picturesque: in every country the garden scenery is opposed to that around; and, when inclosures were comparatively few, our garden plots were divided by straight lines. These now

surround us, and of course we arrange our gardens differently.

On the whole, with the exception of our author's principle, his hobby-horse, which he often rides with little mercy, we have been highly pleased with this essay. We before noticed some of his digressions scattered in the notes. They are more numerous than in the former volume, and they are often highly interesting. We shall select one which has much pleased us. An unexpected excursus of this kind varies the scenery, and renders our author's picturesque ideas still more entertaining.

'All that part of the fable which relates to the form and position of the Cyclops' eye, is by many supposed to have been invented since the time of Homer: it is certain that he is perfectly silent with respect to them both. Some of his most diligent interpreters have also thought that he never intended to represent Polyphemus as having been originally of a different formation from other men, but merely as having lost an eye by some accident; and at Catanea, in Sicily, there is a sculpture in relief, which does represent him according to this idea. I must own, that notwithstanding these authorities, I am still inclined to think, that Homer did mean to represent the Cyclops in general, as a one-eyed race by nature, whatever may have been his notion of the form and position of that one eye. There is a passage in Strabo which clearly proves that he was of that opinion: speaking of Homer's mixing truth with falsehood, he says, that he probably borrowed *της μονοματις κυκλωπας*, from the history of the Arimaspians. I lately, also, heard an observation which strongly influenced my opinion. At the time I was writing this note, I mentioned the subject of it in company with some friends of mine, very much versed in all classical learning. One of them, whose words in public and private have such weight, that the slightest of them are recollected, said, he was persuaded that Polyphemus never had more than one eye; for if he had ever had two, Homer would not have omitted telling us how he had lost one of them. This remark, though slightly thrown out, struck me as containing great justness of observation, and great knowledge of Homer's character.

'But though Homer is silent as to the form and position of the eye, both these circumstances, as likewise the etymology of the name, Cyclops, are mentioned with remarkable exactness in the Theogony; a poem ascribed to Hesiod, but which, I believe, is generally thought to be posterior both to him or Homer.

Μοῦνος δ' ὀφθαλμος μέσσω ἐπέκειτο μέτωπῳ.
Κυκλωπες δ' ὄνομ' ἦσαν ἐπώνυμον, οὐνέκ' ἀρὰ σφείων
Κυκλοπέρης ὀφθαλμος εἰς ἐπέκειτο μέτωπῳ.

'Euripides, who has written a whole play on the subject of the

Cyclops, says nothing of the form of the eye, and very slightly alludes to its position; with regard to the latter, Ovid has in two passages followed Hesiod very exactly.

Whatever may be thought of the merit of this invention in poetry, it has certainly furnished a very bad monster in painting; for the artists who have represented a Cyclops, have placed the eye, not merely in the middle of the face (which possibly *μετωπον*, as well as *frons*, might, with a little licence, be supposed to signify,) but in the exact middle of the forehead, considered separately. Callimachus, and, after him, Virgil, have given a much more picturesque image—

Τοισι δ' ὑπ' ὀφρυῶν
Φαεα μένον γλῆνα, σάκει ἰσα τετραβοεῖω
Δεινὸν ὑπογλαύσσοντα. Callimach. Hymnus in Dianam.

Ingens, quod solum torvâ sub fronte latebat—

Æneid, Book 3.

the exact reverse of an eye in the most open and conspicuous part of the face. Theocritus dwells particularly on the thickness and the continued length of the eye-brow—

Λασία μὲν ὄφρυς ἐπὶ παντὶ μετωπῷ,
Ἐξ ὠτός τεταται ποτὶ ὡτερον ὡς μία μακρά.

From these descriptions, added to the general character in Homer, a much less unnatural, and, at the same time, a more terrific monster might have been produced, even supposing the popular fable to be in a great measure adopted. The eye might for instance be made central and round; but be placed, according to the authorities I have just quoted, under the forehead. Such an eye, half concealed by the overhanging eyebrow, and dreadfully gleaming from beneath it, would give a portentous character; yet still, being so accompanied, and being placed, if not in the usual situation, at least in the usual line, would not, as I conceive, have that appearance of stupid blindness, which a Polypheme in painting (before his adventure with Ulysses) always presents.

That appearance I take to arise, not solely from a position of the eye, so different, and so distant from its usual situation, but also, because the painters have marked the sockets of the two eyes, probably from finding, that when the whole space between the brow and the cheek was filled up, the face lost its form, and became a shapeless lump: and yet, on the other hand, when the sockets of the eyes are ever so slightly indicated, it is impossible not to look there for the organs of sight; and not finding them there, the idea of blindness is unavoidably impressed. Now, I believe, that if a single eye were placed immediately above the nose, and under the brow, and no indication were made of other sockets, that single eye would, in that case, give the idea of vision. Then the one, continued, shaggy, eyebrow, so strongly and distinctly expressed by The-

critus, which seems to favour the idea of an eye in the centre, would, above all things, give a dark and savage look to the giant cannibal: for the mere junction of the eyebrows is said to have given *un air sinistre* to marshal Turenne; a man hardly less famed for the mildness of his nature than for his skill and valour in war.

‘Although I have on a former occasion disclaimed any critical knowledge of the Greek language, I must add to this long note, by making an acknowledgment of the same kind. I should be sorry to be suspected of making a parade of erudition, if I really were possessed of any; much more, having no such pretensions. I thought the subject new and curious; I wished to collect, and to communicate whatever might throw light upon it; and I have on this, as on many other occasions, received great assistance from my ingenious and learned friends.’ P. 114.

The second essay relates to the decorations *near* the house; in other words, the garden. We here expected to meet with some softening of Mr. Price's rigour respecting the picturesque. We fondly hoped, that he would have admitted a little regularity of smoothed, nicely cut edges of the turf, and the grass soft and matted by frequent mowing. We find, indeed, in different parts, a little relaxation in admitting the trimmed walk of gravel, as this is in general artificial; but the palinodia, if intended, is not very satisfactory. We receive, however, ample amends. The modern system of placing the insulated house on a lawn, as if brought by genii from a more characteristic situation, is justly and severely reprehended. In its naked majesty it seems misplaced, for even the den of a brute is surrounded by its kindred forest. The remarks on the Italian gardens are interesting; but we suspect that our author's predilection arises in part from having seen them in a decaying state, when the varied discolourations of the marble and the neglected trees gave a picturesque appearance and form to what might have been originally too exact for the painter's taste; as his preference of the paved terrace with the parapet is more obviously connected with the breaks arising from decay. Indeed an early predilection for a garden in the old form may have reconciled him to the flights of steps, terraces, &c. From the same source, he seems to derive the preference for the ancient upright fountains, and we cannot forbear transcribing some digressive remarks on this subject.

‘The abbé de Lille, who has very pointedly ridiculed the little fountain, and the statues in a citizen's garden, and all such attempts to be magnificent in miniature, has done justice to the real magnificence and splendour of those on a large scale, and has celebrated them in verses well suited to the effects he has described. Mr. Mason, on the other hand, has altogether condemned upright fountains with their decorations, and the principle on which they are

made. He had certainly a good right to object to them in the English garden, of which he has made Simplicity the arbitress; but to condemn them absolutely, and universally, favours more of a national prejudice than of genuine comprehensive taste. As I feel something of a national pride, I am sorry to give a decided preference to the French poet in point of justness and liberality; but I have often thought that Mr. Mason's passion for the two words, simplicity and liberty, has in this, and in other instances, betrayed him into opinions and sentiments of a very contracted kind. Upon this occasion he says,

—————“Thy poet Albion scorns
E'n for a cold unconscious element
To forge the fetters he would scorn to wear.”

It is difficult to say, whether Simplicity, or Liberty, would have most reason to be disgusted with so puerile a conceit.' P. 186.

The third essay relates to buildings, as connected with scenery. This essay is perhaps less satisfactory than the two others, not from any defect of the author, but from his treating the subject in general as connected with landscape painting. It is thus a part less suitable to his original design, but full of ingenious and just remarks on the conduct of those painters who have introduced architecture into their landscape scenery. Blenheim is highly praised by our author for magnificence and grandeur, and he enlarges on it with a prolixity which implies an early predilection:—but who is free from prejudices of this amiable kind, and who would wish to be free from them? The castellated form full of bold, abrupt, and, in many points of view, picturesque projections, shares also his praises; while the naked modern house, where each window has its brother, where each room surveys the same smooth trim and unvaried scene, and where the sloping roof, the dead enemy of picturesque beauty, recurs in every point of view, is severely reprobated. This essay appeared to us too extensive. The author, seemingly not always clear in his own views, wanders about his subject; and, though his wanderings are varied with skill, they at last fatigued us. The following is a favourable specimen of his criticisms.

‘It seems to me that the character of the architecture made use of by the Roman and Florentine schools, taken in a general view, and with the exceptions which in such views will occur, is a sedate, solemn grandeur. That of the Venetians, taken in the same general manner, a gay and splendid magnificence. Such general characters will of course vary in each school according to the disposition of the particular master; and I think in most instances it may be observed, that the style of architecture is in unison with that of the figures. Titian, in whose figures and general concep-

tions there is often a simplicity unknown to Paul Veronese, or to Tintoret, has the same comparative simplicity in his architecture; still, however, it is of a very different cast from that of either of the schools I have mentioned. But of all the painters who have flourished since the revival of the art, none have equalled Paul Veronese, in the festive pomp, in the theatrical splendour and magnificence of his buildings. The profusion of columns, open galleries, balustrades, balconies; of buildings seen across and behind other buildings, with various and singular effects of lineal and aerial perspective—admirably accord with the profusion of figures with which he has peopled them, and with the studied contrasts of groups and attitudes, and the richness of their dresses. As his subjects were frequently festivals and banquets, to these may often be added the rich tints and ornaments of gold and silver plate, of urns, cups, vases, &c. The immense scale of his pictures, the facility with which the whole is conducted, and the extreme clearness and brilliancy of that whole, have so captivated his countrymen, that his works are more celebrated at Venice than even those of his more exalted rival Titian.

‘Tintoret, less dignified in his figures than either of his contemporaries, was full of singular and capricious inventions; and his architecture partakes of the same character *.’ P. 316.

We have expressed so much approbation of different parts of these essays that we need not add any general commendation. We have differed from Mr. Price in his principle, but we ought not on that account to omit that he deserves the highest credit for a taste equally exact and elegant, for acquisitions solid, liberal, and polished; communicated in a manner highly pleasing, though sometimes too *poignant*.

* ‘No painter, whose subjects were serious, ever placed the human figure so much, and so frequently out of the perpendicular, as Tintoret. The same liberty could not so well be taken with architecture; but there is a drawing of his, that was in Sir Joshua Reynolds’s collection, and is now in my possession, where the subject has enabled him to indulge his favourite propensity on a building. He has represented the dream of a pope; who is lying in a stately bed adorned with a canopy, and supported by emblematical figures: his attendants are sleeping in the room in various and singular attitudes. Over the door, a cathedral church seems to be tumbling toward the pope, while a monk on his knees, with his hands stretched towards the portico, appears in the act of supporting it. Rays of light issue from the church, and, illuminating the face of the pope, glance upon the different ornaments of the bed, and on the sleeping attendants. Two other figures are at the door, the one lifting up the curtain of it, and discovering part of an inner room, in which is a strong effect of sunshine; the other advancing into the bedchamber. The whole composition, in point of singularity and richness of invention, of no less singular effects of light and shadow, of the style and disposition of the ornaments of the bed, the tables, and of all the furniture, is in the highest degree characteristic of that wild and capricious, but truly original painter.

Annals of the French Revolution, by A. F. Bertrand de Moleville. (Concluded from Vol. XXVII. N. A. p. 192.)

THE remaining years of the period included in these annals, teem with remarkable occurrences. The revolt of the garrison of Nanci, the insurrections in various provinces, the deprivation of the clerical non-jurors, the intrigues of Mirabeau, the flight and arrest of the king, the completion of the constitutional code, the conference at Pilnitz, and other important subjects of recital, are detailed in the two volumes which now demand our notice.

M. Bertrand treats as visionary the conspiracy imputed to M. de Maillebois; and an intelligent reader may perceive various improbabilities in the accounts of the plot. In the detail of the commotions at Nanci, he agrees in substance with the marquis de Bouillé, by whose memoirs we were enabled to place that affair in a clear light*. His concluding remarks upon it are vague and trifling: 'it has been (he says) but too clearly proved, that the result of the affair at Nanci did not save the monarchy; and it is not altogether improbable that a different result might have been of advantage to it.'

He dwells on the disgrace and retreat of M. Necker. That this minister was a better financier than statesman, and that his conduct was sometimes injudicious, we readily admit; but his intentions appear to have been good, and he wished to promote the prosperity of France.

Of the guilt of the duke of Orléans in the outrages of October, 1789, our author is fully convinced; and he offers just remarks on the report in which Chabroud vindicated that profligate nobleman, at the time of the inquiry of the legislative body into those enormities.

'I shall certainly not undertake to detail this work of darkness, this monstrous tissue of imposition and calumny vainly put together, to give the air of simple misfortunes to the most execrable crimes, and cause the authors of them to be acquitted by accusing their victims. I shall only say, that the whole art of this report, or rather of this defence, consists in mutilating, extenuating, or turning into ridicule most of the depositions; in laying great stress upon the most insignificant; and in overcoming the most positive by the shameless assertion, that what a witness swears positively he has seen and heard he may have thought he saw and heard, but that he was deceived. It was by such manifest prevarications that the advocate Chabroud succeeded in saving the duke of Orleans and his accomplices from the disgrace of a judicial condemnation, but not from the shame of having richly deserved it; for the publication of the

* See our XXIVth Vol. New Arr. p. 305.

proceedings of the Chatelet left no doubt respecting the part that had been taken by the duke in the outrages of the 5th and 6th of October.' Vol. iii. P. 109.

The debate which followed the presentation of the report is sketched with spirit; and the writer closes the account of this business with

' a sublime instance of the queen's magnanimity, worthy of her great character in those days of horror, when she was surrounded with poniards, and stood firm amidst those outrages, the authors of which the Chatelet were to discover and to prosecute. The committee of inquiry for the town having sent a deputation to her majesty to obtain such information as she might be pleased to give concerning the outrages of the 6th of October, the queen answered that she had nothing to say: "Never," added she, "will I turn informer against the king's subjects." The Chatelet sent a deputation to her majesty for the same purpose, and to these her answer was: "I saw all, I knew all, I have forgotten all." Yet this noble princess, born to do honour to the first throne in the world, and to be the idol of nations, in France found assassins! . . . executioners! . . . And those monsters are suffered still to live!" Vol. iii. P. 122.

Other debates of importance, in which Mirabeau was a leading speaker, are given *en abrégé* in the third volume, seasoned with such reflexions as the reader would expect from M. Bertrand.

The secret negotiations between Mirabeau and the king's ministers and friends are developed by our author, who alleges the information of M. de Montmorin as his chief authority. It is affirmed, that the democracy of that intriguing politician consisted 'in lowering to his own level those who were above him, but not in raising to it those who were below him.' Indeed, he was not, in strictness of speech, a democrat. He was rather a friend to monarchical government than to that polity in which the people have the chief sway. Considering him as likely to yield to courtly persuasions, Louis desired the count de L. to confer with him; and it soon appeared that he was willing to act as the friend of his sovereign. He wrote 'a very eloquent and circumstantial letter' to the king, frankly confessing his errors, and pointing out the means of averting the dangers which threatened the security of the monarchy. Louis was pleased with this epistle, and congratulated himself on the prospect of a valuable friend in the writer. Of the plan proposed by Mirabeau, M. Bertrand has no original documents: he can only refer to his own *memoranda*. The scheme was discussed in various conferences, and explained in a long memorial, which reflected great credit on the talents of

the writer, who drew a spirited sketch of the leading features of the revolution, reprobated its atrocities, vindicated his patriotic intentions, and proposed that a new national assembly, constituted on a more solid and legitimate basis than the existing one, should be convoked; that, according to the instructions given to the national representatives by their electors, a moderate and judicious constitution should be drawn up, and sanctioned by the king. To promote these purposes, he advised that commissioners should be sent into the eighty-three departments, and periodical papers distributed, cautioning the people against the licentious and disorganising views of the factious leaders. These democrats he soon after openly attacked in the assembly, with such address, as not to lose his popularity; and he obtained the confidence of the royalists, without encouraging them in their schemes of despotism. He did not live, however, to execute his project. On his death-bed, he expressed a high opinion of his own importance, and seemed to consider himself as the chief prop of the monarchy. To his attendant friends he said, 'It is not for me that you have occasion to weep, but for the monarchy, which descends with me to the grave.'—'His words (says M. Bertrand) were but too true.'

Among the notes annexed to this part of the work, we meet with one that seems to evince an unfeeling heart.

The abbé de Jarante, 'bishop of Orleans, a man of no character, virtue, or talents of any kind, escaped death only by his disgusting insignificance. His life was spared, because he was not found worth the trouble of guillotining. Reduced, at present, to the lowest state of misery, his turpitude disgraces the very rags that cover him.' Vol. iii. p. 428.

Thus does M. Bertrand, after an incorrect assertion in the first sentence of the paragraph, and an unmeaning remark in the second, rejoice at the misfortunes and disgrace of a democratic priest, not so much, we may suppose, from a detestation of his vices, as from indignation at his political conduct.

After the decease of Mirabeau, various plans of counter-revolution were framed by some of the principal royalists. That which was devised by M. de Montmorin chiefly depended on an ostensible coalition between Louis and several of the European potentates, whose supposed views of military interference might assist the schemes of internal arrangement proposed by the aristocratic party. As soon as a hostile manifesto should have been published by these potentates, the king was to repair to the frontiers, put himself at the head of an army, summon the assembly to the vicinity of his camp, and adjust a complete reconciliation between France and the adversaries of her revolution. Louis, while he revolved dis-

ferent schemes in his mind, deputed Alphonso de Durfort to concert measures with the count d'Artois and the emperor. A meeting took place at Mantua, on the 20th of May, 1791; and a plan was adjusted for the march of a German host and other armies to the French frontiers, and for the prosecution of such measures as might rescue Louis from danger, and give him a competent degree of power and authority. It appears, that the king of Great-Britain, as elector of Hanover, was desirous of entering into the confederacy; but it was particularly stated in the agreement, that his neutrality, in his royal capacity, might be depended upon.

The emperor advised the king and queen of France to relinquish the intention which they had formed of retiring from Paris; judiciously observing, that

“the only object that ought to take up their majesties' attention, is to employ every possible means to increase their popularity, to take advantage of it when the time should come, and so that the people, alarmed at the approach of the foreign armies, should find their safety only in the king's mediation, and their submission to his majesty's authority. This is the emperor's opinion. He depends solely on this plan of conduct for the success of the measures which he has adopted, and particularly requests that every other may be given up. What might happen to their majesties, if in their flight they should not be able to escape a barbarous vigilance, makes him shudder with horror. His Imperial majesty thinks that their majesties' surest course is the movement of the armies of the allied powers, preceded by threatening manifestos.” Vol. iv. p. 73.

The impatience of Louis and Antoinette, however, prompted them to hasten towards Montmedi, that they might enjoy the protection of the army commanded by the marquis de Bouillé. The particulars of their flight, and their arrest at Varennes, are well known.

We pass over several details, to arrive at the completion of the constitutional system. The king's counsellors were divided on the subject of his acceptance of the constitution. Some advised him to accept it unconditionally; others provisionally: the former prevailed, by urging the dangers which might attend a refusal. Of the state of parties at this time, a representation, to which few objections can be made, is given by M. Bertrand. We will present our readers with a part of his sketch.

“The real fabricators of the constitution, such as Target, Thouret, Emery, Desmeuniers, &c. acknowledged M. de la Fayette as their nominal leader; but before the king's departure for Montmedy they yielded, whether willingly or not, to the direction of the Lameths, Duport, and Barnave, all enemies of M. de la Fayette,

because he rivalled them in popularity, and counterbalanced their power by the empire he possessed over the hearts of the bourgeois at Paris, and over all the enthusiastic admirers of the Rights of Man, of which he had been the mover, so true is it that popular heroes constantly resemble one another in one particular, which always makes them enemies when it does not unite them; the love of exclusive power.

‘ The king’s arrest formed a new æra in the revolution, which may be regarded as the epocha of the disorganization of all the parties, one only excepted, which reaped an advantage from the fall of the others. The Jacobins having endeavoured in vain to bring the king to a trial, and proclaim France a republic, turned upon the constitutionalists, who opposed it, drove them from their post, and took possession of it themselves. Brissot, who was then the soul of this club, and the chief of the secret committee, who directed its operations, judged very rightly that the Jacobins could not overturn this weak constitution by any other means than by adopting it; and that it was by declaring themselves its guardians, they might discredit its authors, and succeed in destroying the remainder of royalty, which the latter had left defenceless.

‘ The leaders of the constitutional party seeing themselves thus attacked, and in danger of being soon supplanted by the most ferocious revolutionists, divided into two sects; one of them, hoping to retain the favour of the populace, preserved the appearance and language of the Jacobins, who, nevertheless, denounced them as traitors; the other party, still more odious to them, secretly attached themselves to the king, without adopting or proposing any measure to rescue him from danger.’ Vol. iv. p. 314.

It was before the king’s assent had been given to the new constitution, that the conference at Pilnitz, which gave rise to so many vague reports, occurred. Our author’s account coincides with that which the reader will find in a former volume of our Review*.

To the work are annexed some important papers; but it is not necessary to particularise them. Upon the whole, we may recommend these volumes as highly useful to those writers who may undertake the history of the French revolution. They will amuse, and occasionally interest, the general reader, though many parts may prove tedious from the author’s want of animation. Of the merits of the translation we cannot form an accurate judgement, as we have not seen the original; but we may safely pronounce that it is more faithful than elegant.

* Vol. XXIV. New Arr. p. 185.

Tales, Anecdotes, and Letters. Translated from the Arabic and Persian. By Jonathan Scott. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

THE ingenious translator of Ferishta's History of India, and of the Bahar-Danush, or Persian Tales of Inatulla, now presents us with one of the most entertaining miscellanies that can amuse those who read merely for pleasure, and one of the most interesting to those orientalists who seek for profit and instruction. An ample stock of Arabic and Persian manuscripts has supplied him with curious materials; and in the selection and translation he has evinced judgement, taste, and abilities.

The first part of this work (which is dedicated to Mr. Hastings) contains several tales from a valuable fragment of the Arabian Nights, lately procured in Bengal: these are translated with a fidelity which does not preclude animation and spirit. The translations are, indeed, as literal as the difference of idioms will admit. This appears from one of the tales (the Story of the Painter), of which the original Arabic has been printed in the Oriental Collections. The history of 'the Labourer and Flying Chair' occupies the first part of this volume. Then follows the 'Story of the King, his Son, Concubine, and Seven Viziers,' which closes the translation of the Arabian fragment.

In the second part are comprised miscellaneous anecdotes and jests, translated from Persian manuscripts, particularly from one entitled the *Tohfet al Mujailis*, or 'Zest to Company,' and another, called *Uzzulleaut Ubbeed Zhakaunee*, or the 'Bons-Mots of Ubbeed the Jester.'

This wag was probably (as captain Scott conjectures) the droll of some eastern prince. At what time he existed, the translator is uncertain, as the manuscript used by him wants 'the preface or introduction.' But we are enabled to fix the date of his existence with some degree of accuracy. One of his works, in a manuscript now before us, contains a date—*anno Hegiræ 677 (anno Domini 1278)*: this work is entitled *Kenz al Letayef*. Another date occurs in the last distich but one of his *Faul nameh*, *anno Hegiræ 666, A. D. 1267*. From this antiquity we may perhaps be induced to allow the claim of the Persian *Ubbeed* to a multiplicity of jests and witticisms, long ascribed to Joe Miller, or some other parent of European origin. The writer of this article could, without much difficulty, trace many hundreds of our familiar jests and stories to an oriental source, by exhibiting them in the original languages from manuscripts of indisputable authenticity and antiquity.

After this digression, we shall proceed to lay before the reader a few short anecdotes from the second part of the miscellany, some of which will throw light on the manners and customs of eastern nations, while others may excite a smile.

‘ It is related, that three hundred captives were brought before a conqueror, who ordered them to be put to death. A youth among them exclaimed, “ Let us not, O sultaun, die thirsty *.” He commanded them water, and they all drank; when the youth exclaimed, “ O king, we are thy guests, and we know that thou respectest the rights of hospitality.” The king released them immediately.’ P. 216.

‘ It is related, that an oppressive prince, under whose tyranny his subjects had long groaned, suddenly altered his conduct, and became just and beneficent. A favourite, who had the liberty of saying what he pleased, one day enquired the cause of this alteration in his conduct. The prince replied, “ I was one day hunting, when I beheld a dog gnawing savagely the leg of a fox. An attendant threw a stone at the fox, but it missed him, and broke the leg of the dog. At that instant a horse kicked the attendant, and maimed him; when immediately the horse’s foot sunk into a hole, and he was lamed. The sight of such retribution of injuries awakened me from the slumber of heedlessness, and I became sensible, that tyranny could not long be borne in the world; that every foot must rise against it, and every arm be uplifted to drive it from the earth.” P. 222.

‘ Hashim, son of the caliph Abd al Malek, coming out of his palace, met a one-eyed person, whom he commanded to be seized and imprisoned. “ What is my fault?” said the unhappy wretch. “ Thou art one-eyed,” exclaimed the tyrant, and meeting a one-eyed person is ominous of ill luck†”. “ Gracious heaven! (re-joined the man) if the having only one eye is unlucky, it can be only so to himself; but meeting a tyrant is an omen of ill to others. Perceivest thou not, that thy meeting me has done thee no harm, while my meeting thee hath involved me in misfortune?” Hashim was confounded, and released the unfortunate man.’ P. 226.

‘ A respectable personage has related, that when Nadir Shaw had conquered Hindoostan, and possessed himself of Dhely, the unfortunate emperor Mahummud Shaw was confined to his haram in the

* ‘ To understand this, it is necessary to know, that in the uncorrupted times of the orientals, a drop of water, or any office of hospitality, shewn to an enemy, was a signal of forgiveness. In history, we meet with frequent instances of the most revengeful being surprized into clemency by such stratagems as this anecdote relates. Possibly the prisoners were sometimes instructed by the princes to practise it, in order to save the effusion of blood.’

† ‘ The Asiatics are at present as superstitious as the antients.’

citadel. While he and the nobles were anxiously waiting the decision of the conqueror respecting them, Nadir suddenly commanded them to his presence; and seating Mahummud on the throne with himself, thus addressed Kummir ad Dieu, the vizier of Hindoostan: "I have heard much of the musical performers of this country; let some be admitted." Noor Bhay, the most celebrated of her day for singing and dancing, was sent for*. She perceived that Nadir looked joyous, and full of spirits; while Mahummud Shaw was dejected, and low. She sang, with exquisite feeling, the following verse:

"At the sorrows or joys of this world, be neither depressed, or elated,

"For each alternately prevail."

"Mahummud was so affected, that he burst into tears; at sight of which the whole court sighed, and Nadir held down his head, involved in thought, for a considerable time. After an awful pause, he recovered himself, and having ordered a lack of rupees to be given to Noor Bhay, took off his koollah, and presenting it to Mahummud, said, "Will it be accepted?" Mahummud, pulling off his turban, replied, "On condition that you take this in exchange." Nadir placed the turban upon his own head, and said, "May the empire of Hindoostan be as formerly auspicious to my brother!" A general burst of acclamation filled the assembly, and ascended to the heavens.' P. 231.

"Byram Khan was one day at his dinner, when one of the attendants burst into tears. Byram asked the cause, when the youth said, "that the delicacies before him had reminded him of those he had enjoyed in the house of his father, who was a reduced gentleman." Byram replied, "If thou hast really been used to good living, tell me which is the nicest part of a fowl?" "The skin," answered the youth†. Byram promoted him in his household.

"Some days after this, another domestic, hoping to be noticed, while the khan was eating, blubbered dreadfully. The same question was asked, and answer given. Byram, suspecting a trick, said, "Tell me which is the nicest part of a bullock?" "The skin," replied the impostor. Byram laughed, but made the foolish fellow a handsome present. P. 259.

"Hatiffée, the author of the much-admired poem of Leila and Muijenou, was sister's son to Jami, to whom, when the work was finished, he carried it for perusal, requesting his prayers for its success. Jami was delighted, and highly praised the performance. Hatiffée exclaimed, "Would that I had written it sooner, so that

* "Numberless are the anecdotes of this lady's musical powers, fascination, prodigality, and strange mixture of virtues and vices."

† "The skin, with forced meat stuffed under it, is esteemed a delicacy in the east."

ere now my work might have been publickly known!" "If all thou wantest is celebrity," said Jami, "let it be hung up in the great market-place of the city, that all may see it." "True, my lord," said Hatiffée, "but how will they know the author?" Jami replied, "Why, hang up thyself close to the book, that all may be convinced who was the composer." P. 304.

'A taylor following the army was wounded in the head by an arrow. When the surgeon saw the wound, he told his patient, that as the weapon had not touched his brain, there was no doubt of his recovery. The taylor said, "If I had possessed any brains, I should not have been here." P. 306.

'In a season of great drought, in Persia, a schoolmaster at the head of his pupils marched out of Shirauz in procession, to pray for rain; when a humorous fellow asked where they were going? The tutor told him, and said, "He doubted not but God would listen to the prayers of innocent children." "My friend," said the humourist, "if that was the case, I fear there would be no schoolmasters left alive." P. 315.

'A very bad performer once in a coffee-house sang repeatedly in a shocking tone, "Let a lover do what he may, he is excuseable." The company were offended at his discord, but he would not desist. At length, a young fellow threw a cup of sherbet in his face, and the musician being enraged, the humourist cried out, "I am in love, I am in love, as all my friends here well know." The musician was forced to retire from the cutting laughter of the company.' P. 316.

'A man married, and his wife when seen by him proved to be very ugly. A few days after the nuptials, she said to him, "My life, as you have numerous relations, I wish you would inform me before whom of them I may unveil." "My soul," said the man, "if thou wilt but conceal thy face from me, I care not to whom thou shewest it." P. 318.

'A profligate fellow said to a woman, "Let me kiss thee, that I may know who kisses best, thou, or my wife." "Go, and ask my husband," said she, "for he can tell thee, as he has kissed both of us." P. 319.

'An astrologer was condemned to the gibbet, when some one asked him why he did not foresee his fate, and avoid it. "I saw clearly (said he) that I was to be exalted, but I did not enquire of the stars how it was to be." P. 323.

'A profligate infidel had embraced the mussulmaun faith. When

he was circumcised, the divines told him that he was now become as it were new born. About six months after his conversion, he was accused, by some zealous neighbours, of neglecting the rites of religion, and not saying his prayers. "My dear friends," said he, "I am but six months old, and did you ever hear of one at my age being able to pray?" P. 326.

'At a banquet, when solving enigmas was one of the diversions, Alexander said to his courtiers, "What is that which did not come last year, has not come this year, and will not come next year?" A distressed officer starting up, said, "It certainly must be our arrears of pay." The king was so diverted, that he commanded him to be paid up, and also encreased his salary.' P. 329.

'A preacher in a mosque began the history of Noah, with this quotation from the Koraun, "I have called Noah;" but, forgetting the rest of the verse, repeated the same words over and over. At length, an Arab cried out, "If Noah will not come, call somebody else." P. 331.

The third part of this volume consists of letters from the emperor Aurungzebe, translated in a masterly manner from a Persian manuscript collection in three volumes, entitled *Adaub Aulumgeeree*, or 'Complimentary Epistles of Aulumgeer,' preserved by his *Meer Moonshi*, or principal Persian secretary. Aurungzebe, who on his accession to the throne assumed the title of *Aulumgeer*, or 'Conqueror of the World,' exhibits in these letters his artful character and his affected zeal in the cause of religion; for, while he was meditating his own aggrandisement by the perpetration of enormous crimes, even the deposition and imprisonment of his own father, the emperor Shah Jehaun, the murder of two brothers, and the expulsion of another, he adopted a cant of fanaticism, which, as captain Scott justly observes, reminds us of Cromwell's 'seeking the Lord.'

We shall not, by any other extracts, anticipate the pleasure which will be found in the perusal of this work. The letters will prove valuable materials to future writers on the affairs of Hindoostan during the middle of the seventeenth century; and the volume cannot fail of being favourably received, as it is entertaining, interesting, and instructive.

Travels from England to India, in the Year 1789, by the Way of the Tyrol, Venice, Scanderoon, Aleppo, and over the Great Desert to Bussora; with Instructions for Travellers; and an Account of the Expence of Travelling, &c. By Major John Taylor, of the Bombay Establishment; Author of Considerations on a more speedy Communication between Great-Britain and her Eastern Dependencies. 2 Vols. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Carpenter. 1799.

THIS work recommends itself to the general reader by a variety of entertaining anecdotes and a recital of interesting adventures, and to the oriental traveller, by the useful tables and minute statements which it contains. In the introduction to the first volume, the ingenious author inquires how far the communication by the desert, between the eastern and western worlds, has been beneficial to mankind. He begins with the epoch when Alexander penetrated to India by the route of Persia, and traces the origin of our commercial intercourse, and the gradations by which we have ascended to our present pre-eminence and political influence in the scale of nations. From this introduction we will extract the concluding passage.

‘ In the midst of this arduous and expensive warfare, in which the political horizon daily wears a new complection, the British ministry will no doubt bear in mind the claims of this country to a port or ports in the Mediterranean. Now is the moment when a permanent establishment should be effected; and the Island of Candia at once presents itself as the object of our choice. Such is the state of the Turkish empire, that the Porte would readily cede this valuable and important island to the crown of Britain.

‘ It would appear that the French, like other reformers, have attempted to make religion subservient to their purpose, and to become accessory in some measure to ambition and plunder. The shrine of the prophet, the chapel of Loretto, the pope, the sherreeff of Mecca, and the lama, are equally respected. I heard of a new religion while I was in Arabia, which had been recently established, and, what was most extraordinary, in the vicinity of Mecca; but the doctrines which it inculcated had not spread beyond the bounds of a particular family, and it was by no means likely to become general, or to extend over a country where prejudice and enthusiasm are so strongly rooted, and innovation so dangerous, and where the passions of the inhabitants and the influence of climate tend equally to support and promote the precepts of Mahomet. The destiny of Buonaparte is fixed; and although the splendour of his former days may hereafter illumine the page of history, his expedition to Egypt will be recorded as an act of extravagance and folly.’ P. 35.

We now proceed to the journal of major Taylor, who, having procured a coach for the journey through Europe, and furnished himself with a considerable stock of portable soup, curry powder, and good tea, (articles recommended to all who undertake an expedition to India over land) set out from London with his lady, Mr. Blackader, an ingenious surgeon of the Madras establishment, and two servants, one a native of Bengal, who proved of little service, the other an Italian, whose versatility of talents, and dexterity in the operations of cook, tailor, &c. rendered him highly useful. Embarking at Dover, the party arrived at Ostend on the 24th of August, 1789. The travellers then proceeded through Germany to Venice; and, after a tedious passage from that port, they reached the island of Zantè. Here the polite attention of Mr. Speridion Forresti, the British consul (a native of Genoa), is acknowledged by major Taylor, who relates the following anecdote of this gentleman.

‘ Mr. Forresti’s merit, and his services to the English, was often evinced; but it was more conspicuously so in the bold and successful attempt by which he regained and restored to the insurers the Grand Duchess of Tuscany, an English vessel, with a cargo on board, valued at no less a sum than 80,000*l*. In the voyage from Leghorn, she was seized by a noted pirate of the name of Viscellie, who, with only three others, had entered on board as common seamen. After killing the chief mate and helmsman, off the island of Corsica, and turning the passengers and crew on shore, which was suffered in a manner, I must say, derogatory to the character of Englishmen, he sailed for Zante, and cast anchor on the east side of the island, with a view to obtain seamen to conduct the prize to some market where he might dispose of the property. In this situation, being unable to procure the necessary assistance, and information being received by Mr. Forresti of the true state of the case, he determined to retake the ship, and accordingly set out with a party of twenty men, the greatest part of whom he concealed behind a ridge of rocks, in the large boat in which he had left Zante: taking the small boat with four trusty, determined fellows, with concealed arms, he rowed towards the ship, but on coming along-side he was positively refused admittance on board.—After a parley of half an hour, Viscellie agreed to receive him singly. The pirate candidly acknowledged to Mr. Forresti the manner in which he had obtained possession of the ship, but refused, on any terms, to deliver her up. They went to the great cabin, where they drank plentifully of grog. A barrel of gunpowder and a match was placed on the table, with a sentinel ready to blow up the vessel on any appearance of coercion. Returning to the quarter-deck, Mr. Forresti found the opportunity would be lost if he quitted the ship before effecting his purpose, as the wind was fair, and the pirate had determined that

evening to cut the cables, for he could not raise the anchor, and to trust his prize with the Greeks of the Morea. With the most undaunted resolution Mr. Forresti drew a pistol from his pocket, with which he wounded Viscillie under the left breast. The monster endeavoured to give the concerted signal to the sentinel below, by stamping with his foot on the deck; but this was prevented by the activity of Mr. Forresti, who tripped up his heels, when he fell with violence against one of the quarter-deck guns. The Zanteze seamen in the boat were now called on board, who immediately secured Viscillie's companions, and particularly the person below, who, seeing his chief wounded and a prisoner, had not sufficient firmness to execute his dreadful purpose. Thus, by the means of one man, was a valuable ship and cargo rescued from the hands of a pirate, whose indefatigable zeal in the pursuit of villany, his courage, his address, and his enormities, leaves him scarcely an equal. Viscillie was a native of Dalmatia, of low extraction, but whose mind was capable of executing the most determined enterprizes. At one time he was made prisoner by the Venetians, at Castle Novo, in the bay of Cattaro, when, to effect his escape, he had the address to prevail on the sentinel under whose charge he was to rob his officer, set himself at liberty, and even to accompany him in his flight. Strange to relate, that at the distance of a few miles from the place of his confinement, he had the atrocity to murder his liberator for the sake of a booty, amounting to no more than fourteen Venetian chequins!

‘Mr. Forresti was handsomely rewarded for his bravery and resolution, and was appointed British consul at Zante on the death of Mr. Sargent.’ P. 119.

On the 28th of November our author landed at Scanderoon, and on the 30th began his *over-land* journey. We will halt with him a moment at Antioch—the remains of a magnificent city, but at present inhabited by a race the most inhospitable to strangers, especially to Christians, of any in the East: indeed the major declares that this was the only place in which he and his companions suffered any insult or incivility.

‘In proceeding to the caravanferai we had the mortification to be spit at, with the appellation of “Christian dogs!” Mrs. Taylor was seized by the arm, and attempted to be pulled from her horse with a degree of brutal violence: one of the servants luckily held her fast, but her arm bore evident testimony of the rude manner in which the men made the attempt. My Italian servant was seized by the coat, but a spirited stroke from his horsewhip made the fellow quit his hold. The black was more roughly treated, and he had the imprudence to present his pistol at one of the most daring. I severely reprehended him for his folly, considering the brutality of the people, and their dislike to Christians; if any accident had happened, it would have most undoubtedly proved fatal to the whole

party. In turning the corner of a street, a young fellow attempted to snatch away my whip; neither did he relinquish it till after some struggle between us. I have given some features of the inhabitants of Antioch, and what a traveller may expect. I would advise avoiding the town, and rather to seek any shelter than so inhospitable a place. A tent would have been a thousand times preferable, but this we had not. Another thing that perhaps made against us, was the European dress: it would be therefore better to appear à la Turque as soon as possible after your arrival in Syria.' Vol. i. p. 184.

As common opinion differs not a little from that of our author on the subject of the Turks, we will quote the following passage.

'As we continued to ascend the rising ground above Antioch, we were met by a party of Turkish cavalry, proceeding against the rebel pacha of Payas. This detachment appeared well clothed and armed, and tolerably mounted. They were led by an officer, who came gently along smoking his pipe on horseback. We accosted him in the eastern style, which he politely returned. One of his soldiers observing some cold meat in a basket, requested the leg of a fowl, which was immediately given to him. I always found the Turkish soldiers open in their communications, generous in their dispositions, and free from the vulgar and enthusiastic prejudices common to their religion. Our travelling companions, the janizaries, already taken notice of, daily invited us to partake of their bread and fruit. In return, our wine and meat was to them a grateful present, and I found hospitality, good humour, and complacency, blended in men trained to the profession of arms, and inhabiting a country where the mild manners of cultivated society had been exchanged for the ferocious bigotry of fanatic Mahomedans and the Scythian manners of the predatory Turcoman.' Vol. i. p. 194.

Proceeding from Aleppo with a caravan, the major arrived, after many accidents and adventures, at Buffora; where he was received with much kindness and politeness by Mr. Manesty, the British resident. During his stay at Buffora, he committed to paper his observations on the genius and manner of the Arabs; and the reader will derive both pleasure and instruction from the abstract which he gives in p. 273, &c. The following remarks may be useful to travellers.

'I shall now say a few words on the different modes of travelling between Aleppo and Buffora. In whatever manner a traveller may be inclined to prosecute his journey, he should unequivocally appear to place the greatest confidence in his Arab conductors. This will bind the Arab to him, and direct those feelings of honour to his protection and safety, in which his mind, in certain instances, is particularly susceptible.

Should expence be an object with the traveller, he should accompany a Tartar or government express, or hire a few desert Arabs, who, mounted on dromedaries, will travel fifty miles a day, and so reach Bussora in sixteen days. In this situation a traveller must be contented to fare with the Arab, and to spread his carpet at night on the barren desert, with an unclouded sky for his canopy.

Should the traveller have comfort in view, a caravan must be hired at the expence of five or six hundred pounds: for this sum from forty to sixty armed men may be obtained, and twenty camels for himself, to convey water, tents, and other necessaries. This force will be sufficient to protect him against the roving predatory Arabs; for the principal sheicks, I have already hinted, are paid for permission to pass the desert. In this mode, early in the spring or summer, the journey may be performed in twenty-one days, though not comfortably; and, if expedition is not much required, I would advise thirty-six days being allowed. Either of these modes is equally secure; but the first is disagreeable and unpleasant to an European, who is not accustomed to ride like an Arab, and to sleep with a single covering on the barren desert, while his dromedary picks up a scanty subsistence, to drink bad water, and to eat dates and barley bread. For these reasons, I condemn Europeans being ever employed to carry dispatches either out or home, where expedition is required. It is safer and cheaper to dispatch three expresses by different routes, than to trust one European. Letters in cypher falling into any hands can be rarely attended with bad consequences; and it would be hard indeed if one did not escape.

The second mode is attended with great expence and delay; not so much the delay on the desert, as the preparations necessary for a person travelling in the style of an eastern prince, with his guards, scouts, tents, and an innumerable list of expensive and unnecessary things. At either Aleppo or Bussora an outfit of this kind would require from ten days to a fortnight; but the circumstance of there being seldom any preparations ready for a journey not often undertaken, and the removal of our consul from Aleppo, will considerably add to a traveller's distress and inconvenience.

A gentleman taking this route for curiosity should allow sufficient time to examine the ruins of ancient castles and towns he sometimes finds near to his route; and the ruins of Tadmora or Palmyra would repay his curiosity, if there was nothing further to gratify his inquiries.

He should also allow himself sufficient time to partake of the amusements the desert affords in hunting and shooting. There is no place in the world where coursing could be practised with so much pleasure. The Arabs have excellent greyhounds, but their hawks are superior to any other in the universe. Hawking on so extensive a plain, where a horse can gallop in any direction, must, to an amateur, be superlatively delightful.

‘ In the neighbourhood of Aleppo, particularly in the Black Mountains, and near to Sfiri, partridges are very plenty; there are few on the desert, excepting in the summer, at certain places, where they collect for water. A few teal and wild duck are sometimes seen, and also birds of the gregarious kind, something about the size and colour of a black partridge.’ Vol. i. p. 293.

We must not pass over, unnoticed, an anecdote concerning Mr. Latouche, since it reflects honour on that gentleman and the British nation, by which he was employed as resident at Buffora, before Mr. Manesty.

‘ No man ever deserved better at the hands of the Arabs, or was more highly respected and esteemed amongst them, than Mr. Latouche; his wonderful humanity and boundless generosity to the unhappy captives of Zebeer, had gained him their warmest affection. When Buffora was besieged by the Persians, he sheltered within his own walls, and under the protection of the factory and the English flag, the principal people, with their wives and families, and when the miserable inhabitants of Zebeer, according to the custom of the Persians to prisoners taken in war, became the slaves of their opponents, he ransomed them without distinction at his own expence.’ Vol. i. p. 302.

The result of our author's observations on travelling among the Arabs may be summed up in the following extracts.

‘ In the first place, never to display ostentatious finery, and excite the crime of avarice in the heart of an Arab.

‘ 2dly. To observe an equality of temper to even the lowest Arab of your caravan, to forgive his little impertinent curiosity, smile at his wonder and surprise, and appear as much as possible to be on an equal footing.

‘ 3dly. In cases of petty thefts, or of being insulted, which is seldom the case, never to chastise the offender yourself; coolly represent the fact to the sheick, who will do ample justice, and with more strictness than perhaps you would require.

‘ 4thly. Never to mix with strangers or quit your encampment, or wander into the villages or huts of other Arabs without a proper guard: those who are bound to protect you will most assuredly do it; but you must by no means look for civil treatment without the precincts of your own tribe.

‘ 5thly. In every matter relative to the desert be entirely guided by the sheick: in short, appear to have no will of your own, but be entirely under his protection. The more confidence you appear to put in an Arab the better he is pleased, and the more he will find his honour interested, and consequently afford you safe escort and protection.

‘ 6thly. Put on the dress of the natives as soon as possible after your landing in a Mahomedan country, or even before, if you can

procure it: and the dress I would advise to be correspondent to the manner in which you propose to travel, but never to be beyond that of the middling ranks of life.

‘ Although it is scarcely possible to disguise yourself from the knowledge of a Turk or Arab, even with the help of whiskers, and observing a strict silence, yet it evinces a respect for the people, and a wish to be considered on a friendly footing with the inhabitants, who feel themselves not a little gratified at this mark of attention, and will frequently confer a favour on this account when they would refuse common civility to any person in the dress of an European: upon the whole, it is a fact to be depended on, that the Arabians of the desert pay more respect and attention to a Christian than they do to a Turk, for whom they entertain a rooted aversion and inviolable dislike.’ Vol. i. p. 315.

The party embarked at Buffora, and landed at Bushire, a small town situated on the Persian coast, in the Gulf of Hormuz. Here our author observed that the articles of commerce with which Persia abounds are various and important; and he particularly mentions fine carpets, wrought silver and pearls, excellent tobacco and cotton.

‘ The principal commodities taken in return are, English broad-cloth, particularly scarlet and yellow. Manchester printed cottons were suggested as likely to answer the Persian market. Some of the most brilliant patterns were selected and sent to Bushire; but they by no means suited the taste of the Persians: what appeared extremely handsome in the eyes of an European was disregarded by that people; and the more simple, though perhaps not less elegant, patterns of their own were preferred. It might be worth while to carry the experiment a little further, and it would very well repay the trouble and expence, provided so material a branch of our manufactures could be introduced into Persia. The experiment to which I allude is, to print on fine cotton, figures, such as are common in India and Persia, with the most vivid colours that can be procured, and, in short, by variety and attention to their national taste and character, induce them to become purchasers of those and such of our commodities as are the manufacture of Great-Britain.’ Vol. i. p. 345.

On the 22d of February, 1790, our travellers landed at Bombay, and found that hostilities had commenced between the British and the sultan Tippoo. On the subject of this tyrant, major Taylor observes, that

‘ The cruelties exercised on his unhappy subjects riveted the principles of disgust and detestation. Assuming the character of his prophet, he wantonly, and in cold blood, destroys the natural possession of the country, who refuse to reject the religion of their ancestors to assume that of Mahomed; and I declare that I have my-

self witnessed a sight of barbarity unknown in any civilised nation, where the unfortunate Hindoos have been hanged by dozens, on trees by the road side, or suspended on hedge rows, as they were caught in the vain attempt of eluding their sanguinary pursuers; a scene only to be equalled by the ferocious buccaneers in the act of hunting the timid Indians with blood-hounds and mastiffs.

‘These horrible cruelties serve to keep in awe his subjects of a lower class, but policy induces him to attach the principal officers, military and civil, and where his interest is concerned, no man is more liberal of either reward or promotion. Under the eye of Tippoo his army fight with courage and alacrity; but his detachments have uniformly given way with little opposition, and still less conduct.

‘His troops are hired by the month, but his month is arbitrary. Thirty, forty, and even fifty days, constitute their duration, and the state of his treasury, or his own whim, regulates the calendar.’ Vol. i. p. 363.

The first volume concludes with an account of the war in India, and many judicious observations on our eastern politics, and on other topics.

The second volume, although the least interesting to a mere European reader, will be more highly prized by the orientalist and the traveller. To the latter, indeed, it must prove a *vademecum*, or manual, of very great utility. Its contents are miscellaneous. We find the route by Suez accurately laid down, with remarks on the Red Sea—monsoons—periodical rains in India—instructions for gentlemen going by land to India—expenses, articles necessary for the journey—preservation of health—observations made at Bednore, in India—Mahratta war—Zemaun Shaw, king of Candahar—Regulations relative to sending letters over-land—Account of the palm-tree—Various routes—Instructions for passing the desert—Current money of different countries, &c. To the first volume is prefixed a map of the countries between Great-Britain and the East-Indies, with major Taylor’s route; to the second volume, a map, delineating his route from Aleppo to Bassora, across the great desert, in 1789 and 1790; both neatly engraven and coloured.

The Farmer's Boy; a Rural Poem, in four Books. By Robert Bloomfield. With Ornaments engraved in Wood by Anderson. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1800.

LIKE the work of Thomson, this poem is divided into four parts, named from the four seasons; but it must not therefore be supposed that the author is an imitator. The

character of the Farmer's Boy, whose occupations are described throughout the year, gives a wholeness and originality to the plan. This plan is proposed in the opening lines.

‘ SPRING.

‘ O come, blest spirit! whatsoe'er thou art,
Thou rushing warmth that hovers round my heart,
Sweet inmate, hail! thou source of sterling joy,
That poverty itself cannot destroy,
Be thou my Muse; and faithful still to me,
Retrace the paths of wild obscurity.
No deeds of arms my humble lines rehearse,
No Alpine wonders thunder through my verse,
The roaring cataract, the snow-topt hill,
Inspiring awe, till breath itself stands still:
Nature's sublimer scenes ne'er charm'd mine eyes,
Nor Science led me through the boundless skies;
From meaner objects far my raptures flow:
O point these raptures! bid my bosom glow!
And lead my soul to ecstasies of praise
For all the blessings of my infant days!
Bear me through regions where gay Fancy dwells;
But mould to Truth's fair form what Memory tells.

‘ Live, trifling incidents, and grace my song,
That to the humblest menial belong;
To him whose drudgery unheeded goes,
His joys unreckon'd as his cares or woes:
Though joys and cares in every path are sown,
And youthful minds have feelings of their own;
Quick springing sorrows, transient as the dew;
Delights from trifles, trifles ever new.
'Twas thus with Giles: meek, fatherless, and poor;
Labour his portion, but he felt no more;
No stripes, no tyranny his steps pursu'd;
His life was constant, cheerful, servitude:
Strange to the world, he wore a bashful look,
The fields his study, Nature was his book;
And, as revolving seasons chang'd the scene
From heat to cold, tempestuous to serene,
Though every change still varied his employ,
Yet each new duty brought its share of joy.’ P. 3.

As Suffolk, the author's county, is the scene of the poem, descriptions of the sublimer scenes of nature are not to be expected: but in every country the poet can find objects of beauty; and our extracts will abundantly prove that Robert Bloomfield possesses the eye and the feeling of a poet.

After a description of the business of seed time, the dairy is introduced; and the author celebrates the cheese of his own county.

' Unrivall'd stands thy country cheese, O Giles !
 Whose very name alone engenders smiles ;
 Whose fame abroad by every tongue is spoke,
 The well-known butt of many a flinty joke,
 That pass like current coin the nation through ;
 And, ah ! experience proves the satire true.
 Provision's grave, thou ever craving mart,
 Dependant, huge metropolis ! where Art
 Her poring thousands stows in breathless rooms,
 'Midst pois'nous smokes and steams, and rattling looms ;
 Where Grandeur revels in unbounded stores ;
 Restraint, a slighted stranger at their doors !
 Thou, like a whirlpool, drain'st the countries round,
 Till London market, London price, resound
 Through every town, round every passing load,
 And dairy produce throngs the eastern road :
 Delicious veal, and butter, every hour,
 From Essex lowlands, and the banks of Stour ;
 And further far, where numerous herds repose,
 From Orwell's brink, from Weveny, or Ouse.
 Hence Suffolk dairy-wives run mad for cream,
 And leave their milk with nothing but its name ;
 Its name derision and reproach pursue,
 And strangers tell of " three times skim'd sky-blue."
 To cheese converted, what can be its boast ?
 What, but the common virtues of a post !
 If drought o'ertake it faster than the knife,
 Most fair it bids for stubborn length of life,
 And, like the oaken shelf whereon 'tis laid,
 Mocks the weak efforts of the bending blade ;
 Or in the hog-trough rests in perfect spite,
 Too big to swallow, and too hard to bite.
 Inglorious victory ! Ye Cheshire meads,
 Or Severn's flow'ry dales, where plenty treads,
 Was your rich milk to suffer wrongs like these,
 Farewell your pride ! farewell renowned cheese !
 The skimmer dread, whose ravages alone
 Thus turn the mead's sweet nectar into stone.' P. 16.

In summer, the farmer's boy is employed to drive the sparrows from the green corn. In this passage many lines occur of uncommon beauty.

' Shot up from broad rank blades that droop below,
 The nodding wheat-ear forms a graceful bow,
 With milky kernels starting full, weigh'd down,
 Ere yet the sun hath ting'd its head with brown ;
 Whilst thousands in a flock, for ever gay,
 Loud chirping sparrows welcome on the day,

And from the mazes of the leafy thorn
Drop one by one upon the bending corn ;
Giles with a pole assails their close retreats,
And round the grass-grown dewy border beats,
On either side completely overspread,
Here branches bend, there corn o'ertops his head.
Green covert, hail ! for through the varying year
No hours so sweet, no scene to him so dear.
Here Wisdom's placid eye delighted sees
His frequent intervals of lonely ease,
And with one ray his infant soul inspires,
Just kindling there her never-dying fires,
Whence solitude derives peculiar charms,
And heaven-directed thought his bosom warms.
Just where the parting bough's light shadows play,
Scarce in the shade, nor in the scorching day,
Stretch'd on the turf he lies, a peopled bed,
Where swarming insects creep around his head.
The small dust-colour'd beetle climbs with pain
O'er the smooth plantain-leaf, a spacious plain !
Thence higher still, by countless steps convey'd,
He gains the summit of a shiv'ring blade,
And flirts his filmy wings, and looks around,
Exulting in his distance from the ground.
The tender speckled moth here dancing seen,
The vaulting grasshopper of glossy green,
And all prolific Summer's sporting train,
Their little lives by various pow'rs sustain.
But what can unassisted vision do ?
What, but recoil where most it would pursue ;
His patient gaze but finish with a sigh,
When music waking speaks the sky-lark nigh.
Just starting from the corn she cheerly sings,
And trusts with conscious pride her downy wings ;
Still louder breathes, and in the face of day
Mounts up, and calls on Giles to mark her way.
Close to his eyes his hat he instant bends,
And forms a friendly telescope, that lends
Just aid enough to dull the glaring light,
And place the wand'ring bird before his sight ;
Yet oft beneath a cloud she sweeps along,
Lost for awhile, yet pours her varied song :
He views the spot, and as the cloud moves by,
Again she stretches up the clear blue sky ;
Her form, her motion, undistinguish'd quite,
Save when she wheels direct from shade to light ;
The flutt'ring songstress a mere speck became,
Like fancy's floating bubbles in a dream ;

He sees her yet, but yielding to repose,
 Unwittingly his jaded eyelids close.
 Delicious sleep! From sleep who could forbear,
 With no more guilt than Giles, and no more care?
 Peace o'er his slumbers waves her guardian wing,
 Nor conscience once disturbs him with a sting;
 He wakes refresh'd from every trivial pain,
 And takes his pole and brushes round again.' P. 30.

This poem abounds with beautiful lines of accurate and minute description. Several such have occurred in the passages already extracted. Objects that would have escaped common writers are here noticed, and so brought before the eye that every reader recognises the truth of the picture; and even trite circumstances appear original in the discriminating language of this poet.

Thus, in describing the plowman at his work, he says,

' Strong on the wing his busy followers play,
 Where writhing earth-worms meet th' unwelcome day.' P. 7.

' Stopt in her song perchance the starting thrush
 Shook a white shower from the black-thorn bush,
 Where dew-drops thick as early blossoms hung,
 And trembled as the minstrel sweetly sung.' P. 11.

A similar image is very happily expressed in the following couplet.

' — if a gale with strength unusual blow,
 Scattering the wild-brier roses into snow.'

We may also praise the description of the country girl in the account of harvest—the mastiff—and the admirable line which begins the passage

' Hark! where the sweeping scythe now *rips* along:
 Each sturdy mower emulous and strong;
 Whose writhing form meridian heat defies,
 Bends o'er his work, and every sinew tries;
 Prostrates the waving treasure at his feet,
 But spares the rising clover, short and sweet.
 Come, Health! come, Jollity! light-footed, come;
 Here hold your revels, and make this your home.
 Each heart awaits and hails you as its own;
 Each moisten'd brow, that scorns to wear a frown:
 Th' unpeopled dwelling mourns its tenants stray'd;
 E'en the domestic laughing dairy-maid
 Hies to the field, the general toil to share.
 Meanwhile the farmer quits his elbow-chair,

His cool brick-floor, his pitcher, and his ease,
And braves the sultry beams, and gladly sees
His gates thrown open, and his team abroad,
The ready group attendant on his word,
To turn the swarth, the quiv'ring load to rear,
Or ply the busy rake, the land to clear.
Summer's light garb, itself now cumb'rous grown,
Each his thin doublet in the shade throws down;
Where oft the mastiff sculks with half-shut eye,
And rouses at the stranger passing by;
Whilst unrestrain'd the social converse flows,
And every breast Love's pow'rful impulse knows,
And rival wits with more than rustic grace
Confess the presence of a pretty face;
For, lo! encircled there, the lovely maid,
In youth's own bloom and native smiles array'd;
Her hat awry, divested of her gown,
Her creaking stays of leather, stout and brown;
Invidious barrier! why art thou so high,
When the slight cov'ring of her neck slips by,
There half revealing to the eager sight
Her full, ripe bosom, exquisitely white?
In many a local tale of harmless mirth,
And many a jest of momentary birth,
She bears a part, and as she stops to speak,
Strokes back the ringlets from her glowing cheek.' P. 35.

It is saying much for the lines which we are about to quote, that the reader must be pleased, even while he may remember the incomparable poetry of Cowper. The poet has been describing the church.

' Round these lone walls assembling neighbours meet,
And tread departed friends beneath their feet:
And new-brier'd graves, that prompt the secret sigh,
Shew each the spot where he himself must lie.
Midst timely greetings village news goes round,
Of crops late shorn, or crops that deck the ground;
Experienc'd ploughmen in the circle join;
While sturdy boys, in feats of strength to shine,
With pride elate their young associates brave
To jump from hollow-sounding grave to grave;
Then close consulting, each his talent lends
To plan fresh sports when tedious service ends.
Hither at times, with cheerfulness of soul,
Sweet village maids from neighbouring hamlets stroll,
That like the light-heel'd does o'er lawns that rove,
Look shyly curious; rip'ning into love;

For love's their errand : hence the tints that glow
 On either cheek, an heighten'd lustre know :
 When, conscious of their charms, e'en age looks fly,
 And rapture beams from youth's observant eye.

' The pride of such a party, Nature's pride,
 Was lovely Poll ; who innocently try'd
 With hat of airy shape and ribbons gay,
 Love to inspire, and stand in Hymen's way :
 But, ere her twentieth summer could expand,
 Or youth was render'd happy with her hand,
 Her mind's serenity was lost and gone,
 Her eye grew languid, and she wept alone ;
 Yet causeless seem'd her grief ; for quick restrain'd
 Mirth follow'd loud, or indignation reign'd :
 Whims wild and simple led her from her home,
 The heath, the common, or the fields to roam :
 Terror and joy alternate rul'd her hours ;
 Now blithe she sung, and gather'd useless flow'rs ;
 Now pluck'd a tender twig from every bough,
 To whip the hov'ring demons from her brow.
 Ill-fated maid ! thy guiding spark is fled,
 And lasting wretchedness waits round thy bed—
 Thy bed of straw ! for mark, where even now
 O'er their lost child afflicted parents bow ;
 Their woe she knows not, but perversely coy,
 Inverted customs yield her sullen joy ;
 Her midnight meals in secrecy she takes,
 Low mutt'ring to the moon, that rising breaks
 Through night's dark gloom :—oh how much more forlorn
 Her night, that knows of no returning dawn !—
 Slow from the threshold, once her infant seat,
 O'er the cold earth she crawls to her retreat ;
 Quitting the cot's warm walls in filth to lie,
 Where the swine grunting yields up half his sty ;
 The damp night air her shiv'ring limbs assails ;
 In dreams she moans, and fancied wrongs bewails.
 When morning wakes, none earlier rous'd than she,
 When pendent drops fall glitt'ring from the tree :
 But nought her rayless melancholy cheers,
 Or sooths her breast, or stops her streaming tears.
 Her matted locks unornamented flow ;
 Clasping her knees, and waving to and fro ;—
 Her head bow'd down, her faded cheek to hide ;—
 A piteous mourner by the pathway side.
 Some tufted molehill through the livelong day
 She calls her throne ; there weeps her life away :

And oft the gaily passing stranger stays
His well-tim'd step, and takes a silent gaze,
Till sympathetic drops unbidden start,
And pangs quick springing muster round his heart;
And soft he treads with other gazers round,
And fain would catch her sorrow's plaintive sound:
One word alone is all that strikes the ear,
One short, pathetic, simple word,—“Oh dear!”
A thousand times repeated to the wind,
That wafts the sigh, but leaves the pang behind!
For ever of the proffer'd parley shy,
She hears th' unwelcome foot advancing nigh;
Nor quite unconscious of her wretched plight,
Gives one sad look, and hurries out of sight.—

‘Fair promis'd sunbeams of terrestrial bliss,
Health's gallant hopes,—and are ye sunk to this?
For in life's road though thorns abundant grow,
There still are joys poor Poll can never know;
Joys which the gay companions of her prime
Sip, as they drift along the stream of time;
At eve to hear beside their tranquil home
The lifted latch, that speaks the lover come:
That love matur'd, next playful on the knee
To press the velvet lip of infancy;
To stay the tottering step, the features trace:
Inestimable sweets of social peace!’ p. 58.

One more extract must be offered, in justice to the genius and humanity of the author.

‘Sweet then the ploughman's slumbers, hale and young,
When the last topic dies upon his tongue;
Sweet then the bliss his transient dreams inspire,
Till chilblains wake him, or the snapping fire:
He starts, and ever thoughtful of his team,
Along the glitt'ring snow a feeble gleam
Shoots from his lantern, as he yawning goes
To add fresh comforts to their night's repose;
Diffusing fragrance as their food he moves,
And pats the jolly sides of those he loves.
Thus full replenish'd, perfect ease possess,
From night till morn alternate food and rest,
No rightful cheer withheld, no sleep debar'd,
Their each day's labour brings its sure reward.
Yet when from plough or lumb'ring cart set free,
They taste awhile the sweets of liberty:
E'en sober Dobbin lifts his clumsy heels
And kicks, disdainful of the dirty wheels;

But soon, his frolic ended, yields again
To trudge the road, and wear the clinking chain.

' Short-sighted Dobbin!—thou canst only see
The trivial hardships that encompass thee:
Thy chains were freedom, and thy toils repose,
Could the poor post-horse tell thee all his woes;
Shew thee his bleeding shoulders, and unfold
The dreadful anguish he endures for gold;
Hir'd at each call of business, lust, or rage,
That prompt the traveller on from stage to stage.
Still on his strength depends their boasted speed;
For them his limbs grow weak, his bare ribs bleed;
And though he groaning quickens at command,
Their extra shilling in the rider's hand
Becomes his bitter scourge:—'tis he must feel
The double efforts of the lash and steel;
Till when, up-hill, the destin'd inn he gains,
And trembling under complicated plains,
Prone from his nostrils, darting on the ground,
His breath emitted floats in clouds around:
Drops chase each other down his chest and sides,
And spatter'd mud his native colour hides:
Through his swollen veins the boiling torrent flows,
And every nerve a separate torture knows.
His harness loos'd, he welcomes eager-eyed
The pail's full draught that quivers by his side;
And joys to see the well-known stable door,
As the starv'd mariner the friendly shore.

' Ah, well for him if here his suff'rings ceas'd,
And ample hours of rest his pains appeas'd!
But rous'd again, and sternly bade to rise,
And shake refreshing slumber from his eyes,
Ere his exhausted spirits can return,
Or through his frame reviving ardour burn,
Come forth he must, though limping, maim'd, and fore;
He hears the whip; the chaise is at the door:
The collar tightens, and again he feels
His half-heal'd wounds inflam'd; again the wheels
With tiresome sameness in his ears resound,
O'er blinding dust, or miles of flinty ground.
Thus nightly robb'd, and injur'd day by day,
His piece-meal murd'ers wear his life away.' p. 85.

After the quotations which we have given, it is superfluous to praise this poem: it will plead its own cause. Knowing this, we delayed noticing the history of the author, lest our readers might imagine that they were prejudiced in favour of

the poem by the interest which must be excited in their minds for Robert Bloomfield.

Robert was himself the farmer's boy whose occupations he has so well described. His father died when he was an infant, leaving a widow and six children. Robert was two or three months only at school to learn writing, before he was seven years old. This was all his education. But we will proceed in the words of the preface, which is drawn up from the letters of the poet's brother, George Bloomfield, by Mr. Capel Lofft, a gentleman whose name the public have often seen connected with some act of benevolence or justice.

'When Robert was not above eleven years old, the late Mr. W. Austin, of Sapiston, took him. And though it is customary for farmers to pay such boys only 1s. 6d. per week, yet he generously took him into the house. This relieved his mother of any other expence than only of finding him a few things to wear: and this was more than she well knew how to do.

"She wrote therefore," Mr. G. Bloomfield continues, "to me and my brother Nat (then in London) to assist her: mentioning that he, Robert, was so small of his age that Mr. Austin said he was not likely to be able to get his living by hard labour."

'Mr. G. Bloomfield on this informed his mother that, if she would let him take the boy with him, he would take him, and teach him to make shoes: and Nat promised to clothe him. The mother, upon this offer, took coach and came to London, to Mr. G. Bloomfield, with the boy: for she said, she never should have been happy if she had not put him herself into his hands.

"She charged me," he adds, "as I valued a mother's blessing, to watch over him, to set good examples for him, and never to forget that he had lost his father." I religiously confine myself to Mr. G. Bloomfield's own words: and think I should wrong all the parties concerned if, in mentioning this pathetic and successful admonition, I were to use any other.

'Mr. G. Bloomfield then lived at Mr. Simm's, No. 7, Fisher's-court, Bell-alley, Coleman-street. "It is customary," he continues, "in such houses as are let to poor people in London, to have light garrets fit for mechanics to work in. In the garret, where we had two turn-up beds, and five of us worked, I received little Robert.

"As we were all single men, lodgers at a shilling per week each, our beds were coarse, and all things far from being clean and snug, like what Robert had left at Sapiston. Robert was our man, to fetch all things to hand. At noon he fetched our dinners from the cook's shop: and any one of our fellow workmen, that wanted to have any thing fetched in, would send him, and assist in his work and teach him, for a recompense for his trouble.

"Every day when the boy from the public-house came for the pewter pots, and to hear what porter was wanted, he always brought

the yesterday's newspaper. The reading of the paper we had been used to take by turns; but after Robert came, he mostly read for us, because his time was of least value.

"He frequently met with words that he was unacquainted with; of this he often complained. I one day happened at a book-stall to see a small dictionary, which had been very ill used. I bought it for him for 4d. By the help of this he in little time could read and comprehend the long and beautiful speeches of Burke, Fox, or North.

"One Sunday, after an whole day's stroll in the country, we by accident went into a dissenting meeting-house in the Old Jewry, where a gentleman was lecturing. This man filled little Robert with astonishment. The house was amazingly crowded with the most genteel people; and though we were forced to stand still in the aisle, and were much pressed, yet Robert always quickened his steps to get into the town on a Sunday evening soon enough to attend this lecture.

"The preacher lived somewhere at the west end of the town, his name was Fawcet. His language," says Mr. G. Bloomfield, "was just such as the Rambler is written in; his action like a person acting a tragedy; his discourse rational, and free from the cant of methodism.

"Of him Robert learned to accent what he called hard words; and otherwise improved himself; and gained the most enlarged notions of Providence." P. iv.

The poet's corner in the London Magazine first excited his poetical ambition; and his early attempts found admission in that work. Afterwards he chanced to lodge in the next garret to a Scotchman, who was a man of good understanding, and yet a furious Calvinist. He had many books (says Mr. G. Bloomfield), *and some which he did not value; such as the Seasons, Paradise Lost, and some novels.* These books he lent to Robert, who spent all his leisure hours in reading the Seasons, which he was now capable of reading.

Mr. G. Bloomfield continues:

"When I left London he was turned of eighteen; and much of my happiness since has arisen from a constant correspondence which I have held with him.

"After I left him, he studied music, and was a good player on the violin.

"But as my brother Nat had married a Woolwich woman, it happened that Robert took a fancy to a comely young woman of that town, whose father is a boat-builder in the government yard there. His name is Church.

"Soon after he married, Robert told me, in a letter, that 'he had sold his fiddle and got a wife.' Like most poor men, he got a wife first, and had to get household stuff afterward. It took him some

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years to get out of ready-furnished lodgings. At length, by hard working, &c. he acquired a bed of his own, and hired the room upon one pair of stairs at 14, Bell-alley, Coleman-street. The landlord kindly gave him leave to sit and work in the light garret, two pair of stairs higher.

"In this garret, amid six or seven other workmen, his active mind employed itself in composing the *Farmer's Boy*." p. xii.

'Robert is a ladies' shoemaker, and works for Davies, Lombard-street. He is of a slender make; of about 5*F.* 4*I.* high; very dark complexion. His mother, who is a very religious member of the church of England, took all the pains she could in his infancy to make him pious: and as his reason expanded, his love of God and man increased with it. I never knew his fellow for mildness of temper and goodness of disposition. And since I left him, universally is he praised by those who know him best, for the best of husbands, an indulgent father, and quiet neighbour. He is about thirty-two years old, and has three children.' p. xiii.

Such was the education, and such is the situation of Robert Bloomfield. Mr. Capel Lofft has corrected the pseudography, and has sometimes altered the grammatical construction of the poem; but he has done nothing more. We will conclude with the close of this gentleman's preface.

'I have no doubt of its reception with the public: I have none of its going down to posterity with honor; which is not always the fate of productions which are popular in their day.

'Thus much I know: that the author, with a spirit amiable at all times, and which would have been revered by antiquity, seems far less interested concerning any fame or advantage he may derive from it to himself, than in the pleasure of giving a printed copy of it, as a tribute of duty and affection, to his mother; in whose pleasure, if it succeeds, his filial heart places the gratification of which it is most desirous. It is much to be a poet, such as he will be found: it is more to be such a man.' p. xv.

A Narrative of the Expedition to Holland, in the Autumn of the Year 1799. Illustrated with a Map of North Holland, and seven Views of the principal Places occupied by the British Forces. By E. Walsh, M. D. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Robinsons. 1800.

THE sanguine expectations of the projectors of the secret expedition, the ample provisions made for its equipment, the valour of the troops and the skill of the commanders, the expected co-operation of inhabitants supposed to be panting for

an opportunity of regaining their rights, their religion, and their liberty—all these circumstances render its failure an interesting object of inquiry; and we are highly indebted to this author for collecting documents, and for arranging the materials of his history in such a manner as to please and interest the general reader. The contrast indeed is remarkable between the attempts made on the United Provinces by the French and the confederate powers. The former, by an almost miraculous concurrence of circumstances, were enabled to over-run the country, and to establish themselves in it: but the elements which had so much favoured them seem to have set themselves in array against the latter. The confederate forces that bled for the protection of the Dutch could scarcely excite a sentiment of gratitude or esteem in their minds, whilst the atheism, violence, and rapine of the French were unable to root out the attachment formed for the new republic. The unhappy predilection of the Dutch for the French is too well ascertained by the history of this expedition; for, as the invading army under the duke of York was superior to the defending army under general Brune to the moment of the retreat of the former, it is evident, that, if there had been any disposition to co-operate with us, so powerful a diversion might have been made in our favour as to render the success of our troops by no means problematical.

The grounds of the predilection of the Dutch for the French seem to our author 'unaccountable on any other score than that of commercial jealousy, and national rivalry, inasmuch as the United Provinces are indebted to England not only for their original independence and subsequent prosperity, but for her unremitting friendship and protection to preserve them in that state;' but he forgets that he had, a few pages before, ascribed the success of the Dutch in throwing off the Spanish yoke to the joint assistance of Henry the Fourth of France and queen Elizabeth of England, and that the influx of the French on the revocation of the edict of Nantes, by bringing 'property, ingenuity, and experience,' into their country, is by himself assigned as a sufficient ground for this phenomenon. It was natural in the seventeenth century, that the English and Dutch should co-operate in resisting the violent ambition of the French under Louis the Fourteenth: it was perhaps as natural, near the close of the eighteenth century, that the Dutch should think themselves more secure under the protection of France than of England. In the one case they fought in defence of their property, their religion, and their liberty, under the house of Orange which they loved; in the latter case, their affections to that house had, by various causes, been alienated; they found themselves reduced to the rank of a subordinate power; they had been hurried into a war when

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it was evidently their wish to preserve a state of neutrality; and these misfortunes were ascribed by the popular party, as it was called, to the predominating influence of the British court in the cabinet of the stadtholder. These grounds of complaint were not likely to be diminished by the events of the war previous to the secret expedition. On the defeat of the combined forces in the Low Countries, and the retreat of the English army to Cruxhaven, the Dutch, incapable (even if they had been willing) to stem the torrent of success, were under the necessity of receiving the French as friends; and the consequence of this step was the loss of their finest colonies, and the seizure of their ships on the part of the English. Thus harassed on both sides, the phlegmatic Dutchman computed the loss he had sustained by both parties; and finding himself less injured by French requisitions than by English seizures, he acquiesced in the friendship of the revolutionary republicans, as the least of the two evils to which he was unavoidably exposed.

In this state of public sentiment in Holland, it was thought expedient to invade that country; and, on the thirteenth of August, the first division of the troops destined for this service, 'composed of the flower of the British army, in round numbers about fifteen thousand men,' sailed 'with the most favourable auspices' from Deal; but, encountering a storm on the second day, they did not effect their landing in the extremity of North Holland before the twenty-seventh of the same month. They were opposed by a body of only seven thousand men, who were defeated with the loss of eleven hundred men, while that on our side did not exceed five hundred men, if we except the casualties on landing the troops. This action, however irregular, was 'well contested,' and afforded a strong presage of future resistance. It was followed by the surrender of the Helder and the Dutch fleet, and by proclamations, on our part, to the Dutch to restore their ancient constitution.

* But neither the brilliant career of the British arms, nor these proclamations, had the immediate effect expected from them. The inhabitants of the part of the country in our possession displayed no cordiality in their attachment to the cause we maintained, which seemed to be the effect rather of necessity than choice, and a new feature of the Dutch character soon betrayed itself,—they proved cool and cautious in their friendship, but active and vindictive in their enmity.' p. 36.

On a ridge of sand-hills, from the twenty-seventh of August to the first of September, the invaders were exposed to all the inclemency of the weather, without any other shelter than 'could be obtained by digging trenches in the sand;' and being too weak in numbers to attempt any great enterprise, were

content to take possession of better quarters about twelve miles to the south, where, protected by dikes and entrenchments, they could wait in security for the expected reinforcements. The Dutch, recovered from their first panic, and strengthened by the arrival of some French troops, resolved upon another attack. Their whole force did not exceed twelve thousand men. With such inferiority in numbers, they ventured on an experiment which, from the strength of our positions, was baffled by little more than a third of our army, and cost the former a thousand men in killed and wounded, whilst our whole loss did not amount to more than two hundred in killed, wounded, and missing. The invading army could not, however, pursue its advantage: it remained at its post till the thirteenth of September, when the duke of York arrived with three brigades of British troops, and on the same day had the pleasure of witnessing the disembarkation of seven thousand Russians, who were soon followed by more, till the force of these auxiliaries amounted to between seventeen and eighteen thousand men. By the nineteenth the united army amounted to thirty-six thousand men; the head-quarters were at Schagenburg; and, early in the morning, the whole host was in motion 'in high health and spirits, excellently appointed, and furnished with a fine train of artillery,' to attack the enemy. It marched in four columns; but the precipitation of the Russians destroyed the advantages gained by the other columns; and 'the troops, after a dismal and harassing march, during which they were lighted by the blaze of burning villages, arrived at an early hour in the morning at the respective stations which they occupied before the battle.' The enemy's force, it is supposed, amounted to thirteen thousand French, and fifteen thousand Dutch, and their loss to three thousand prisoners, and two thousand in killed and wounded. The invaders also suffered considerably, as the British are supposed to have lost fifteen hundred, and the Russians three thousand.

The inclemency of the weather prevented farther active operations for some time; but, in the interval, our army received reinforcements of Russians and English, till it amounted by the latter end of the month 'in round numbers to about forty thousand men.' An attempt was made on the twenty-ninth to attack again; but the swampy state of the country, and a tremendous surf, rendered it expedient to defer the intended attack, which did not take place before the second of October. Our army marched, as before, in four columns; but the Russians were now in the centre, and the right wing was in motion at half past six in the morning; and 'about sunset the enemy yielded up the well-fought ground, and retired to Beverwick.' Their force 'was computed at five and twenty thousand men, of which about fifteen thousand were

French,' and their loss 'at three thousand men.' The loss of the British 'exceeded that of any single battle in which a British array was concerned during the whole war. It amounted to nearly sixteen hundred men; and the Russians lost six hundred.'

'The result of the well-contested battle of Alkmaar,' or rather the second battle of Bergen, was the acquisition of the whole peninsula of North Holland. The head-quarters were now advanced to Alkmaar; and in the new quarters the army rested to the morning of the sixth of October, when it marched forward to dislodge the enemy from the pass of Beverwick. In fact, though the battle of Egmont was 'indecisive, the enemy fell back upon his positions in front of Beverwick,' and left the British and Russian troops to lie on 'their arms all night, occupying the ground where the action terminated.' The loss of the British in this action amounted to 'upwards of fourteen hundred' men, 'that of the Russians was between eleven and twelve hundred men:' the enemy's loss is supposed to be equal to that which was sustained on the second of October.

'The allied army now found itself in a situation so critical, that it required the greatest military talents, joined with the maturest experience, to direct its future operations.' The crisis is placed in its true colours by our author; and it appears that by the most prudent determination, on the seventh of October, 'about ten o'clock at night, the whole army was in full retreat, which, by a sudden and decided measure, was effected before the face of a most vigilant and active foe, without disorder or any immediate pursuit, and with little comparative loss.' On the ninth, the British and Russians resumed their old positions on the great dyke of the Zuyp, and the enemy re-occupied those which they had seized before the battle of Alkmaar; and, as it was necessary to defend the retreating army by a small inundation, and there was little prospect of succeeding in any farther attacks on the enemy, it was determined 'to return to England as expeditiously as possible.'

Negotiations were commenced on the fourteenth between the commanders in chief of the opposing armies: the agreement was concluded, and followed by an armistice on the eighteenth; and at the easy rate of restoring eight thousand prisoners of war, and leaving the ordnance and military stores previously mounted on batteries within the British lines, for the Batavian republic, the whole invading army was allowed to re-embark. The commander went on board on the first of November; and, by the twentieth, the whole of the forces, British and Russian, had left the Texel.

While preparations for embarkation were actively going forward, much hospitable civility passed between the general-officers of both armies; even the men seemed to forget that they were enemies, and a salutary restraint was necessary to keep them within their respective out-posts. So much more prone is the human mind to emotions of amity than of hatred! P. 89.

Thus ended the secret expedition. Of the conduct of the British troops engaged in it, Dr. Walsh justly remarks, that 'their intrepid valour in the field, their moderation and humanity when victorious, and their calm fortitude under adverse circumstances, must reflect a permanent lustre on the British arms, and render even misfortune respectable.' If we consider the expense of the equipment, it is rather extraordinary that the army should have encountered so many difficulties; yet

'the exterior appointments of so many troops, in such a country, during a severe campaign, were not furnished without great difficulty; and though neither expense nor exertions were wanting, the army suffered occasionally from privations of the first necessity. The want of wheel carriages, adapted to the nature of the country, was often severely felt, and would, on many pressing occasions, be irremediable, if the inland navigation did not, in some measure, supply the deficiency. No sutlers were allowed to follow the army until the close of the campaign. This, no doubt, was intended to be a salutary regulation; but, more than once, every article of consumption became so scarce, that the necessary refreshments for the sick and wounded were not to be purchased. Even fresh water began to fail at the Helder, and a contract was actually agreed upon to procure regular supplies from the Ems. Fortunately, the country was well stocked with black cattle and sheep; in consequence of which there was no want of fresh meat.' P. 91.

With the operations of the army are interwoven many excellent remarks, and descriptions of North Holland and its inhabitants; and both from the nature of the enterprise and the singularity of the circumstances attending it, this narrative from an eye-witness well qualified not only to discriminate between the leading and less important features of the expedition but to paint them with vigour and fidelity, will, we doubt not, receive the approbation of the public. We wish that among the other documents there had been inserted the accounts of the principal actions sent by the Dutch and French commanders to their respective employers, as well as the letters of the Russian generals to their emperor, that thus an impartial judgement might be formed of the whole of this extraordinary campaign: but the defect may be easily supplied in a future edition of this work, which will then be a very important acquisition to the present generation and to future historians.

Reformation-Truth Restored. Being a Reply to the Rev. Charles Daubeny's Appendix to his Guide to the Church. Demonstrating his own Inconsistency with Himself; and his great Misrepresentation of some Historic Facts. With a more particular Vindication of the pure, reformed, Episcopal Church of England, from the Charges of Mr. Daubeny, and other Doctrinal Dissenters of that Gentleman's Sect, who are fomenting Schisms and Divisions, and disseminating Errors, in the very Bosom of the Establishment. In a Series of Letters to Mr. Daubeny. By Sir Richard Hill, Bart. M.P. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

THE controversy between the baronet and the divine still rages, and there is no prospect of its speedy conclusion. The divine has the advantage of the baronet in the article of discipline; but the latter presses his adversary with the *argumentum ad hominem*, and, since the want of baptism in archbishop Secker did not invalidate either his ordination or future baptisms, Sir Richard presumes that his partiality to the dissenters from the church of England may be excused. We do not allow this mode of arguing, nor can we consider any one who frequents conventicles, even if the preacher be equally learned and pious with any of our bishops, as a true son of the church. In the point of discipline, therefore, we must side with the divine against the baronet: but Sir Richard protests against such a decision.

‘Agreeable to this sound reasoning, whenever Mr. Daubeny preaches the doctrine of the Guide and of the Appendix, in any church, he immediately turns that church into a dissenting meeting; and there can be no schism in departing from him; and by parity of reasoning, if the doctrines of our articles are preached even in an hovel, the preacher has a much better pretension to call himself a minister of the church universal, and even of the church of England, than a certain fellow of Winchester-college.’ P. 10.

The mistake in the baronet's reasoning is a very common one. If Mr. Daubeny should preach in his pulpit what may appear false doctrine to another, he does not turn the church into a meeting of dissenters, nor is he a schismatic; for, by preaching in that pulpit, he allows the authority of the church, and seems to manifest a readiness to submit to her censures. On the other hand, when the doctrines of the church are preached in a hovel by one not authorised by, nor acknowledging the authority of, the bishop, he is (whatever his other pretensions may be) a schismatic; and all who countenance such a preacher and such a meeting are involved in the same stigma. Another mistake of the baronet is in supposing that

the church of England admits the validity of dissenting baptism; for it does not allow any baptism but that which is performed by persons duly ordained to this office.

On the subject of doctrine, Sir Richard seems to have the advantage. He is well read in the history of the reformation, and opposes with great strength of argument the present lax mode of interpreting the thirty-nine articles. That the articles were Calvinistical in their origin cannot be doubted; that they may be in some measure softened down towards Arminianism, is also true: but the latitude taken by many divines, and the cold morality introduced into the pulpit, instead of the peculiar and enlivening doctrines of Christianity, deserve the chastening hand of the baronet's satire. His apostrophe on this occasion merits attention.

‘ But truth must not hide her head, and be abashed, when she is called upon to bear a testimony, even before the greatest men upon earth. Therefore, come of it what will, and call it what you please, abuse, railing, reviling, &c. &c. &c. (I know these are the canting terms of the day,) I do avow that there are, at this hour, many truly sound, able, learned, exemplary, laborious ministers in the establishment, who have scarcely bread to eat; whilst multitudes of idle, non-resident drones and pluralists, are fed to the full for starving the flocks committed to their charge. I appeal to no persons, I appeal to plain facts. Is a conscientious belief of our articles, and a life devoted to God in the conversion of sinners, the way to preferment, either in or out of the universities? and whilst men of this sort, are looked upon in the light they are, or rather not looked upon at all, how can it be, but that the church of England must, by degrees, become a ponderous lump of lifeless formality, which will at last sink under its own weight? and God only knows how soon this may be case!—If I have spoken plainly of the disease, it is in hopes that a speedy remedy may be applied!’
P. 194.

There is much harsh language on both sides which might well be spared. Neither of the controversialists would intentionally be guilty of heresy or schism, but both hazard themselves too near the edge of a precipice.

Copies of original Letters from the French Army in Egypt. Part the Third, consisting of those Letters to the French Government, intercepted by the British Fleet in the Mediterranean, which have been published here by Authority. With an English Translation. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Wright. 1800.

THE attention of this publication is to paint, in the language of the editor, the personal character of Buonaparte. The character of the first general of the age is weighed by a pedantic measurer of syllables; and some intercepted letters

from Egypt are to delineate the conqueror of Italy, and the sovereign of France. In the introduction and notes, Buonaparte is said to be 'famous for cruelties, blasphemies, and frauds—a fugitive and a traitor—the object of the fear and hatred of mankind—one whose course has been fraud, whose business has been blood, whose element is revolution—who is to be admired in a morning for his blue coat and white pantaloons, and in the evening for his white coat and blue ones—who has spilled more blood wantonly than any commander of ancient or modern times—one of whose plans was a mixture of idiotism and phrensy, completely ridiculous, and truly worthy of the man who conceived it—who talks in a jargon that captain Bobadil would have blushed at—seems absolutely incapable of any impressions of pity or remorse—is an anomalous being, such as neither history nor fiction has yet dared to exhibit—was guilty of a base, cowardly, and malicious calumny—began with a system of fraud and hypocrisy, with which he will most assuredly end—sneaked away from his post like a midnight thief—is of a contracted and restless mind, incapable of directing any scheme of policy, yet presumptuously venturing upon all—is to be pitied and despised for sottish stupidity, whining, and hypocritical cant—is a man whose base and cowardly desertion of his army, if there be one spark of feeling, one sentiment of honour, yet left in France, will produce a cry of universal indignation and horror, and drive the idol of a fortnight from his imaginary throne.' Such is the language used towards an enemy; and, for the sake of these malignant effusions, and this contemptible trash, the intercepted letters are given to the public. We turn with disgust from the comments of the editor to the letters themselves, which were calculated to make a considerable impression on the public mind, if it had not been weakened by the injudicious attempts of the annotator to raise the feelings of his readers to the same degree of passion and spleen with which his remarks were conceived.

The letters are interesting, as they exhibit the motives of a general for quitting his army, his directions for the future conduct of that army, the state in which he left it, and the difficulties which it had to encounter from climate, from want of necessaries, from internal commotions, and the approaching force of the Ottoman empire. Buonaparte has been severely blamed for quitting his army; but we do not scruple to assert that it was the act of a great and energetic mind. To impute it to cowardice, is a mark of prejudice unworthy of notice. He who had exposed himself to so many dangers, who was then balancing between his duty to his army, and his supposed duty to his country, who would venture on the odium that might be thrown on him for quitting his post, on the dangers

of the seas covered with hostile fleets, on the probability of surmounting every difficulty, and raising himself above the factions by which France was convulsed, must possess, whatever his other faculties may be, a soul for enterprise, not surpassed by any of the heroes of antiquity. He assigns for his reasons the dangers of his country: he leaves directions for the next in command. His successor sends an account of the state of the army in Egypt, and appears to be fully sensible of the difficulties of his situation. At the same time, it is to be recollected that it is the interest of the general to paint his situation in higher colours than the case really admits, that, if he should succeed, his triumph may be greater, or, if he should fall, the disgrace of defeat may be palliated. It was the opinion of many, that the French army would be able to retain possession of Egypt, in defiance of the efforts of the Turks and their British allies: but intelligence of a contrary nature has arrived, intimating the evacuation of the contested territory, on the grant of a safe retreat to the republicans.

Upon the whole, we see no reason for making such an outcry against an expedition, which is as justifiable as the generality of expeditions undertaken by warlike powers. At any rate it can tend to no good purpose to vilify and abuse our enemies; and this mode of pamphleteering the general of the adverse party does no honour to the character of the British nation. We will not allow ourselves to attribute the notes and introduction to a person who enjoys a distinguished post under government, as they bear evident marks of having been composed in haste by one who is in the habit of dishing up such common-place materials as may serve for a temporary purpose.

The Inspector, or Select Literary Intelligence for the Vulgar, A. D. 1798, but correct A. D. 1801, the first Year of the XIXth Century. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Debrett. 1799.

AN emeritus professor of the university of Dublin, relinquishing his speculations on the irreducible case in algebra, is now forced on the shores of the western ocean, and employing his fine achromatic glasses in surveying the eastern hemisphere. He has by their means, he tells us, not only discovered the entire forms of the three spectres which have lately disturbed Europe—French philosophism, German illuminism, and English unitarianism; but he has discerned the spots in purer forms which are giving battle to these dreadful monsters. From his exalted station he conceives himself to possess eminent advantages, and proposes to be inspector-general of the literature, morals, and religion of Europe. In this capacity

he has given to the public the present work, consisting of two parts, written in an incorrect and desultory manner.

As a specimen of the improvements suggested by him, we will only name one, which may excite some ferment in Pater-noster-row. All booksellers and printers should be examined, after the manner (we presume) of the candidates for a fellowship in Dublin, as to literary and moral qualifications, and should not be permitted to exercise their trades without a license. No one could be better employed in this task than our author; and if he should then be allowed to make an *index expurgatorius*, he might curb the licentiousness of the English press, and teach us to read and think within sound limits.

In the unitarian spectre, Mr. Belsham occupies a much greater space than was apparent to our optics, and our inspector must not blame his achromatics for his mistakes in the genealogies of this sect. Priestley is placed at the head; Lindsey, Evanston, Williams, &c. are called his followers. The order, we think, should be Evanston, Lindsey, Priestley; and Williams does not belong to the society.

Amidst strange tautology and wild effusions, there is evidently in this work a spirit of religion, which we highly approve: a degree of learning is also visible, which might have been introduced to great advantage. We will exhibit an instance of the author's best manner in the castigation which he gives to Paine, and the judicious interpretation of a difficult passage in the Scriptures.

‘ Aping his master, Paine, in like manner, has discovered that the book of Job was originally written in Greek, by some heathen philosopher, of late date, and thence translated into Hebrew;—from the Greek names of the constellations, “Pleiades, Orion and Arcturus,” adopted from the Septuagint version, by our English translation, in two remarkable passages of Job, ix. 9. and xxxviii. 32.—not knowing, in the extent and compass of his ignorance, that the original terms in Hebrew are as unlike in sound as in sense—“Aish” denoting Ursa Major; “Chimah,” Taurus; and “Chesil,” Scorpio:—while the fourth constellation, “Mazaroath,” left, through ignorance of its meaning, untranslated by the Septuagint and our English translation, is judiciously rendered by Suidas, in his second signification of Μαζαρωθ “the Dog-star” or Sirius; where the Hebrew or Egyptian termination (as in Naboth, or Thoth, Behemoth, &c.) marks his utter ignorance of the Greek tongue also.

‘ These inimitable passages, amidst all the clouds and darkness attached to patriarchal language and patriarchal astronomy, still bursting forth to the philosophical orientalist, with a radiance the most dazzling, and with an imagery the most sublime and beautiful, and yet the most chaste and scientifically correct—which even a Maskelyne and a Herschell, a De la Lande and De la Place,

might view with admiration and amazement—may thus be less incorrectly rendered, illustrating each other, in the most difficult and obscure parts, of the most obscure poem extant, as it is by far the most ancient—compared with which, Lycophron is plain and easy:

“How can man be justified with God!—
One of a thousand cannot answer Him—
Making Aish, Chesil and Chimah,
And the recesses of the South.”

“Canst thou shut up the delightful teemings of Chimah?
Or the contractions of Chesil, canst thou open?
Canst thou draw forth Mazaroth in his season?
Or Aish and her sons canst thou guide?”

‘This is the most picturesque description of the cardinal constellations, in the primitive sphere—many ages before the Argonautic expedition—(when, according to Newton’s fanciful system, it was first constructed,)—and the leading qualities of the seasons over which they were supposed to preside; according to the most ancient Chaldean astronomy:—Chimah, or Taurus, denoting the expansions of the earth’s bosom in spring by the sun’s genial heat; Chesil, its contractions in autumn, by the cold weather, so finely denoted by the contraction of the Scorpion’s claws, numbed by the commencing cold; Mazaroth, as presiding over the sultry heats of summer during “his season” of the dog-days—commencing at his heliacal rising, on the 30th of July, in the present age and climate, and lasting for forty days; and who is here represented as drawn forth from “the recesses of the south,” or antarctic circle, by an almighty Orion; to face Aish, or Ursa Major, “revolving in her arctic den, and watching Orion,”—as so finely described by Homer, *Iliad*. xviii. 485.

Ἀρκτονθ' ἦν καὶ Ἀμαξαν ἐπικλησὶν καλεσθῆναι,
Ἡ τ' αὐτὴ στρεφεται καὶ τ' Ὀριωνα δοκεῖσι.

“And the Bear, surnamed also the Wain (by the Egyptians),
Who is turning herself about there, and watching Orion,”—

—and his hounds Sirius and Canicula;—and, under the guidance of the same almighty Arctophylax, presiding over the opposite season of the winter’s frosts.

‘And the drift of the argument, in both stanzas of Job, may thus perhaps be not incorrectly summed up;

‘God is all powerful—
Constantly regulating the seasons of the year:
But canst thou,—puny and presumptuous mortal!
Reverse the distinguishing characters of spring and autumn?
Or bring on the sultry heats of summer and frosts of winter—
Each in their proper season?’

Well surely might the venerable but rather impatient Patriarch exclaim, with contempt and indignation—
 —“A miserable critic art thou!”—this wooden critic—as Paine describes himself at the close of his unhallowed labours on the Old Testament, which he ignorantly confounds, like his master Voltaire, with the Bible.’ P. 172.

We respect the author's erudition; and we approve his zeal for religious truth, though we wish it to be tempered with more charity. His work may amuse the leisure hours of a few of the learned; but it will not gratify readers of taste, or persons of a liberal turn of mind.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS, &c.

Substance of the Speeches of the Right Honourable Henry Dundas, on his Majesty's Message for declining to treat at present with France; and his Objections to an Inquiry into the late Expedition to Holland. With a Preface, touching briefly on the State of Affairs. 8vo. 2s. Chapple. 1800.

THIS publication reminds us of the apartments in the capital of the northern part of this island, to which, however elegant, there is frequently no access but by a stair-case offensive to the nostrils and disgusting to the sight of the visitants. The preface is written in one of the highest paroxysms of anti-jacobinism; a mania which, like jacobinism, is often destructive to the best feelings of the human mind; and the panegyric on Mr. Dundas is laid on so thick, and with so coarse a trowel, that the writer, we should think, must be in danger of losing the expected reward of his labours. Both speeches have some degree of merit. The speaker boldly asserts his claim to the merit or demerit of refusing to negotiate with Buonaparte; and he accompanies his reasons, which are drawn from the supposed instability and iniquity of the French government, with the usual invectives against the French and their consul. On the inquiry into the failure of the expedition to Holland, he states the objects of that enterprise, which were, first, ‘to rescue the United Provinces from the tyranny of the French; secondly, to add to the efficient force of this country, and to gain possession of the Dutch fleet; thirdly, to divert the enemy from his projected pursuits in general.’ In two of these objects it succeeded; in the third it failed; and the gain of two out of three points proved more than sufficient to counterbalance the inconvenience arising from the loss of the third. The grounds for

expecting the co-operation of the Dutch cannot be conveniently laid before the public, as such a discovery might be the means of baffling another enterprise upon that country, and depriving us of the assistance of those who in more favourable circumstances might be ready to join us. The ill success also of the expedition, considered in itself, was in a great measure occasioned by the very extraordinary inclemency of the weather; and we had the satisfaction of knowing that nothing was omitted to produce success, which could be expected from troops of unparalleled bravery, and a commander who amply deserves every encomium bestowed upon him. Though the loss too of life had been considerable, yet there was a satisfaction in knowing that it had been exaggerated, as the whole number of the killed amounted to eight hundred and forty-six only, and only one hundred and eighty-five had died of their wounds. This is so very different from other accounts, that incredulity has scarcely given way to the high authority which made this assertion. At length the motion for inquiry was resisted, 'as it could not be productive of any actual benefit, at the same time that it might considerably clog and harass the measures of government.'

Substance of the Speech of the Hon. Thomas Erskine, in the House of Commons, on Monday, the 3d of February, 1800, on a Motion for an Address to the Throne, approving of the Refusal of Ministers to treat with the French Republic. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

Mr. Erskine considered the house as assembled on a very momentous occasion, to decide on the conduct of ministers in a new æra of the present calamitous war. Their conduct, in refusing to negotiate with Buonaparte and returning so petulant an answer, met with his positive and unequivocal censure. He would not enter into the question of aggression, but would confine his censure of their answer to other points. It was inconsistent with his majesty's declaration in 1795; it was inconsistent with their own attempts to negotiate at Paris and at Lisle. From their 'past conduct they were bound, upon their own principles, to listen to terms of negotiation;' and it was also their interest to treat; for Buonaparte's government could be overthrown only by democratic revulsion, or the restoration of the house of Bourbon. If it should be overthrown by revulsion, new difficulties would occur, and peace could not be obtained for a long period, as there must be a state of probation for every new form of government. If the house of Bourbon should be restored, it must be kept on the throne by the force of arms against the sense of persons of property; and it was the sense of property which, in both countries, gave stability to their respective governments. As the latter event was in the highest degree improbable, and the answer returned to Buonaparte's message was likely to strengthen his interest among the French, and make the resistance to the conse-

derate powers more obstinate, it appeared to him more deserving of censure than of approbation.

Speech of the Right Hon. William Pitt, delivered in the House of Commons, Monday, Feb. 3, 1800, on a Motion for an Address to the Throne, approving of the Answers returned to the Communications from France relative to a Negotiation for Peace. 8vo. 2s. Wright.

This speech may be divided into two parts; first, an answer to the celebrated pamphlet written by Mr. Erskine; secondly, a justification of ministers for rejecting the late negotiatory overtures of the French. Previously to the entrance on the first part, the speaker classes the persons who would have favoured the reception of the overtures under one or other of these three heads. The first comprehends those who do not think that the nature of the French revolution ever was or is now such as to render that nation incapable of negotiating with foreign powers. The second comprehends those who imagine that the recent change in the administration of France gives a security for negotiation, which did not exist in the former stages of the revolution. Under the third head are such as think that the pressure at home is a sufficient call for pacific measures, even if the security to be afforded by the enemy should not be adequate to our wishes or expectations. This classification appears to us very incomplete; for, on many other grounds, persons adverse to the French revolution might be willing to listen to the overtures. They might see the hopelessness of the contest in which we are engaged; they might think that during the negotiation France would be less able to recruit its strength than England to retain its forces; and that, if it should not succeed, we should be no losers by the delay; they might urge, that, since the present war has been represented on our part as a war of defence, there can be no grounds for continuing it when the assailants propose to lay down their arms, and to settle all differences by better means than the sword. Many other reasons might be given by those who wish for the return of peace; but, as the classification itself is of little consequence, it is unnecessary to mention them.

With regard to the first part of the speech, it will be difficult for many years to hold the balance even between Mr. Pitt and Mr. Erskine. The origin of the war between this country and France will not perhaps be fairly discussed before the heat of party shall have subsided. Mr. Pitt denies that the order for M. Chauvelin's departure was the cause of the war, and he repeats the trite arguments that have been frequently adduced upon this subject. The French aggressions on the rights of nations are summed up; and it is observed that France has been at war 'with all the nations of Europe, save two, and, if not these two (Sweden and Denmark), it is only because, with every provocation that could justify defensive war, these countries have hitherto acquiesced in repeated violations

of their rights rather than recur to war for their vindication.' In this some are of opinion that these two nations have discovered considerable prudence; for, to vindicate their rights, much blood and treasure must have been expended in a doubtful conflict; and the insult of a man worked up almost to phrensy by domestic uneasiness may sometimes be overlooked, when the cool deliberate malice of a neighbour, watching the moment to do an injury, requires correction. In this part some slippancies on Mr. Erskine and his book, and on citizen Tippoo Saib, detract much from the merit of the discussion, which affords in other respects a tolerably good abridgement of the acts of the French under the revolutionary government.

Having shown the disposition of France in its revolutionary form, the speaker proceeds to consider the nature of the change which has taken place in its government. The chief consul of France is represented as unfavourable to general pacification (and a separate peace we could never have consented to make), from the declaration of his confidential friends, Berthier and Monge, to the French directory, on the signing of the peace at Campo Formio. 'The kingdom of Great-Britain and the French republic, it is said, cannot exist together.' The perfidies of Buonaparte are enumerated, his cruelties recounted; no reliance is to be placed upon his character; and it is doubtful whether it is for his interest to make peace. He may wish for negotiation to paralyse the arms of the confederacy; but, to retain his newly-usurped power, war will be necessary for him, and he can govern only by the sword. He is at the head of a military despotism, which may be strong for a time, but cannot be permanent. After such a description of the chief consul, we expected a perpetual declaration of war against him; but we find 'no such thing.' The speaker does not say, 'we will in no case treat with Buonaparte;' but he says, 'we ought to wait for experience and the evidence of facts before we are convinced that such a treaty is admissible.' Here the minister lays down something like a measure of experience. The new government of France is to show signs of stability, and the allied army is to fail in exciting the spirit of the country to destroy the system; and then ministers will take these points into their consideration. At the present moment, he observes, every thing tends the contrary way. There is, he says, the 'greatest reason to rely on the powerful co-operation of our allies;' in which point time has proved that he was in an error. 'There are the strongest marks of a disposition in the interior of France to an active resistance against this new tyranny;' but the genius of Buonaparte has made this assertion doubtful. Lastly, 'there is every ground to believe that the continuance of the contest, instead of making our situation comparatively worse, will make it comparatively better.' Of this we entertain considerable doubts.

The two countries are compared. France is said to be impos-

verished and exhausted. Our commerce is represented as extended and flourishing, public credit improved, our permanent revenue increasing. The military ardour and military glory of the country, it is affirmed, have risen in the last two years to a height unexampled in any period of our history. Here the minister forgets the purchased retreat of the finest army that was ever sent out of this country; he forgets also the enormous price of provisions; he forgets the amount of taxes; and he forgets also that France has been so often declared to be impoverished and exhausted, that few give the least credit to such assertions. The great question now occurs. Even if it be allowed that France was the aggressor, and that its government has committed all the acts with which it is charged, on what grounds can overtures be refused by those who themselves had made overtures to that government when its form was less likely to afford security than the present form, and when the persons in possession of power were not more distinguished for their virtues than the present consul. Here the answer of the minister is open and manly. He feared for the expenses of the war, for the stability of the funding system, at the time of opening the negotiations at Lisle. New and vigorous measures of finance were necessary; and such measures could not be carried into execution till the country was convinced that an honourable peace was not to be obtained. The rising spirit of the country makes him rejoice that these negotiations failed, though at the moment he wished for peace and sincerely laboured for peace. The harangue is concluded with a grand accumulation of ifs, in a paragraph of two pages and a half, which might make an impression on any one who had not considered the turns in this war. We rise from the perusal of this speech rather confounded than convinced; we agree with the speaker in many points, but perceive his weakness in others; and the main argument seems to rest upon very slender support.

The Speech of the Hon. Charles James Fox. In the House of Commons, on Monday, the Third of February, 1800, on a Motion for an Address to the Throne, approving of the Refusal of Ministers to treat with the French Republic. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

This is a firm, manly, energetic oration; and however we may differ in several opinions from the speaker, we cannot but applaud the noble sentiments with which he is inspired, and his manner of defending that side of the question which he has adopted. He continues to think, and says 'plainly and explicitly, that this country was the aggressor in the war;' and this point he maintains with his usual plausibility of reasoning. He does not defend the conduct of the French; but he proves that in all their actions they have 'done no more than servilely trace the steps of their own Louis the Fourteenth.' They have conquered and interfered with the government of other countries on Bourbon principles; and 'as we never scrupled to treat with the princes of the house of Bourbon

on account of their rapacity, their thirst of conquest, their violation of treaties, their perfidy, and their restless spirit,' we ought not to refuse, he contends, to treat with their republican imitators. He also argues that, 'when there is a question of peace and war between two nations, that government feels itself in the wrong which refuses to state with clearness and precision what she should consider as a satisfaction and a pledge of peace.'

On the introduction of religion into the contest, we agree entirely with this speaker, that it 'never was, and never can be, a justifiable cause of war.' We approve his comparison between Buonaparte and Suworoff; for surely no one who has heard of Praga and Ismael, and who can justify the introduction of the hero of Poland at the head of his barbarous hordes into the civilised parts of Europe, can imagine that there is any thing in the conduct of the French, or the character of their chief, which should render either unfit objects for negotiation. We fear also that there is too much ground for the comparison between our mode of treating our allies and the intrusions of the French into the government of other countries. We could wish to see a refutation or a justification of lord Hervey's conduct towards the grand-duke of Tuscany, or of the behaviour of Mr. Drake at Genoa; and if the seizure of Venice by the French is to be urged as an argument against our treating with them, the conduct of Austria in taking possession of the object of the theft is a sufficient reason for dissolving our alliance with that power.

But the great question is, how can administration defend itself for refusing to negotiate with France in 1800, after the attempt made in 1796 and the renewal of the negotiation in 1797? The government under Buonaparte was not worse than the former governments; and, as it was urged that by the former negotiations ministers 'had given to the world what might be regarded as an unequivocal test of their sincerity and disposition towards peace,' Mr. Fox with some confidence puts the question, 'Have they, or have they not, broken their own test?' But the event which would remove every obstacle to negotiation is not considered as desirable; for, says this speaker, 'I cannot forget that the whole history of the century is little more than an account of the wars and the calamities arising from the restless ambition, the intrigues, and the perfidy, of the house of Bourbon. The digressions to the defence of the duke of Bedford from some trifling insinuations, and to the publication of the intercepted letters from Egypt, are unfortunate; for, though it is generally allowed, that, 'in the introduction and notes to these letters, the ribaldry is such that they are not screened from the execration of every honourable mind even by their extreme stupidity,' yet in so high an argument the impression intended to be made on the hearers was weakened by a reference to objects comparatively insignificant.

From these digressions the speaker returns to the subject of negotiation, and discusses with great clearness the motives assigned for

treating with the enemy in two instances, and for rejecting in a late instance the offers of negotiation : upon which head he makes this striking address to the feelings of the house.

Sir, what is the question to-night? We are called upon to support ministers in refusing a frank, candid, and respectful offer of negociation, and to countenance them in continuing the war. Now, I would put the question in another way. Suppose that ministers had been inclined to adopt the line of conduct which they pursued in 1796 and 1797, and that to-night, instead of a question on a war address, it had been an address to his majesty to thank him for accepting the overture, and for opening a negociation to treat for peace : I ask the gentlemen opposite—I appeal to the whole 558 representatives of the people—to lay their hands upon their hearts, and to say, whether they would not have cordially voted for such an address? Would they, or would they not? Yes, Sir, if the address had breathed a spirit of peace, your benches would have resounded with rejoicings, and with praises of a measure that was likely to bring back the blessings of tranquillity. On the present occasion, then, I ask for the vote of no gentlemen, but of those who, in the secret confession of their conscience, admit, at this instant, while they hear me, that they would have cheerfully and heartily voted with the minister for an address directly the reverse of this. If any such gentleman should vote with me, I should be this night in the greatest majority that ever I had the honour to vote with in this house. I do not know that the right honourable gentleman would find, even on the benches around him, a single individual who would not vote with me—I am sure he would not find many—I do not know that in this house I could single out the individual, who would think himself bound by consistency to vote against the right honourable gentleman, on an address for negociation. There may be some, but they are few. I do know, indeed, one most honourable man in another place (whose purity and integrity I respect, though I lament the opinion he has formed on this subject), who would think himself bound, from the uniform consistency of his life, to vote against an address for negociation. Earl Fitzwilliam would, I verily believe, do so. He would feel himself bound, from the previous votes he has given, to declare his objection to all treaty : but I own I do not know more in either house of parliament—there may be others, but I do not know them. Why then, what is the house of commons come to, when, notwithstanding their support given to the right honourable gentleman in 1796 and 1797, on his entering into negotiation ; notwithstanding their inward conviction, that they would vote with him now for the same measure—what are we to think of the character of that house of commons, who, after supporting the minister in his negotiation for a solid system of finance, can now bring themselves to countenance his abandonment of the ground he took, and to support him in refusing all negociation ! What will be said of gentlemen who shall vote in this way, and yet feel, in

their consciences, that they would have, with infinitely more readiness, voted the other?" P. 31.

In the remainder of the speech, the invectives against Buonaparte, his breach of oaths, his supposed want of interest to keep the peace, the manifesto of Louis the Eighteenth, and the experiment of the chief consul's future conduct, are discussed with spirit. We regret that no answer was given to the allegation of Mr. Fox respecting the part which the English are said to have taken in the atrocities committed at Naples. If the reports were false, they might have been contradicted. Upon the whole, we may recommend this speech as that of an able orator and politician, though we do not concur in all the observations of the speaker.

The Speech of the Right Hon. John, Earl of Clare, Lord High Chancellor of Ireland, in the House of Lords of Ireland, on a Motion made by him, on Monday, Feb. 10, 1800, "That, in order to promote and secure the essential Interests of Great-Britain and Ireland, and to consolidate the Strength, Power, and Resources of the British Empire, it will be advisable to concur in such Measures as may best tend to unite the two Kingdoms, in such Manner, and on such Terms and Conditions, as may be established by Acts of the respective Parliaments of Great-Britain and Ireland."
8vo. 2s. 6d. Wright.

This speech does not throw any new light upon the very important subject which has for some time interested the public mind. A plain statement is given of the connexion between Great-Britain and Ireland; and the æra when it was firmly established is with great propriety assigned to the early part of the reign of James the First. Before that time Ireland was in a very unsettled state, divided between the colonists within the pale, and the native Irish under their chieftains, who lived in a state of feudal anarchy. In the unhappy times of Charles the First, the whole country was convulsed with civil discord; and Cromwell, transplanting a large body of the Irish to Connaught, and forbidding them to repass the river Shannon on pain of death, distributed their estates among his followers. 'A very considerable portion of the opulence and power of the kingdom of Ireland centres at this day in the descendants of his motley collection of English adventurers, independents, anabaptists, seceders, Brownists, Socinians, millenarians, and dissenters of every description.' The restoration of Charles the Second did not restore to the rightful owner his estate; for, on the act for the settlement of Ireland, 'I wish gentlemen (exclaims the chancellor) who call themselves the dignified and independent Irish nation, to know that seven millions eight hundred thousand acres of land were set out to a motley crew of English adventurers, civil and military, nearly to the total exclusion of the old inhabitants of the island.' The chancellor is very exact in his calculations; and, after stating in detail these facts to the house, he sums them up in the following extraordinary manner.

the whole of your island has been confiscated, with the exception of the estates of five or six old families of English blood, some of whom had been attainted in the reign of Henry VIII. but recovered their possessions before Tyrone's rebellion, and had the good fortune to escape the pillage of the English republic inflicted by Cromwell; and no inconsiderable portion of the island has been confiscated twice, or perhaps thrice, in the course of a century. The situation, therefore, of the Irish nation at the Revolution stands unparalleled in the history of the inhabited world. If the wars of England, carried on here, from the reign of Elizabeth, had been waged against a foreign enemy, the inhabitants would have retained their possessions under the established law of civilised nations, and their country have been annexed as a province to the British empire. But the continued and persevering resistance of Ireland to the British crown during the whole of the last century, was mere rebellion, and the municipal law of England attached upon the crime. What then was the situation of Ireland at the Revolution, and what is it at this day? The whole power and property of the country has been conferred by successive monarchs of England upon an English colony, composed of three sets of English adventurers, who poured into this country at the termination of three successive rebellions.—Confiscation is their common title; and from their first settlement they have been hemmed in on every side by the old inhabitants of the island, brooding over their discontents in sullen indignation. It is painful to me to go into this detail, but we have been for twenty years in a fever of intoxication, and must be stunned into sobriety.' P. 21.

The speaker, we presume, was well acquainted with the temper and disposition of the descendants of those English adventurers, or he would scarcely have used such flowers of rhetoric to persuade them to an acquiescence in an unpalatable measure. What is the security then of these descendants? The same with that of their forefathers, 'the powerful and commanding protection of Great-Britain.' This consideration induced the peers, in 1703, to represent to queen Anne the policy of a closer union; and, in 1707, both lords and commons addressed her majesty to the same effect. The want of such an union was felt in various disputes from that period to the arming of the volunteers at Dungannon, and the supposed final adjustment of 1782. The folly of imagining that any arrangement then made could preclude a closer union between the countries is now so generally acknowledged, that a minute inquiry into the opinions of the managers on that occasion seems to be useless. The chancellor shows clearly, from the correspondence of the duke of Portland and the earl of Shelburne, that it was considered by all parties as leading only to a future 'treaty for consolidating the strength and establishing the connection of both countries on a broad and permanent basis.'

That a more intimate connection is requisite is proved from the disputes on the commercial propositions, and from the conduct of Ireland in the king's illness and the late rebellion. On each of these topics the earl displays his usual perspicuity, and then breaks out into the following exclamation.

‘ I will now appeal to every dispassionate man who hears me, whether I have in any thing mis-stated or exaggerated the calamitous situation of my country, or the coalition of vice and folly which has long undermined her happiness, and at this hour loudly threatens her existence. It is coldly inculcated, I know, “ Let the British minister leave us to ourselves, and we are very well as we are.” We are very well as we are ! Gracious God ! of what materials must the heart of that man be composed, who knows the state of this country, and will coldly tell us we are very well as we are ? We are very well as we are ! We have not three years of redemption from bankruptcy or intolerable taxation, nor one hour's security against the renewal of exterminating civil war. We are very well as we are ! Look to your statute-book ; session after session have you been compelled to enact laws of unexampled rigour and novelty, to repress the horrible excesses of the mass of your people ; and the fury of murder, and pillage, and desolation, have so outrun all legislative exertion, that you have been at length driven to the hard necessity of breaking down the pale of the municipal law, and putting your country under the ban of military government ; and in every little circle of dignity and independence, we hear whispers of discontent at the temperate discretion with which it is administered. We are very well as we are ! Look at the old revolutionary government of the Irish union, and the modern revolutionary government of the Irish consulate, canvassing the dregs of that rebel democracy, for a renewal of popular ferment and outrage, to overawe the deliberations of parliament. We are very well as we are ! Look to your civil and religious dissensions ; look to the fury of political faction, and the torrents of human blood that stain the face of your country ; and of what materials is that man composed, who will not listen with patience and good will to any proposition that can be made to him, for composing the distractions, and healing the wounds, and alleviating the miseries of this devoted nation ? We are very well as we are ! Look to your finances, and I repeat you have not redemption for three years from public bankruptcy, or a burden of taxation which will sink every gentleman of property in the country.’ P. 74.

The prospect of public bankruptcy is now proved arithmetically. The objections to the union, that this is an improper time, that Ireland is to be extinguished, that the nobility and gentry will be driven from their country, &c. are repelled ; but the earl, on this occasion, does not display any great novelty of thought or happiness of expression. We come to a more striking feature in the speech,

which, as it began with some bold truths to the landholders in general, now addresses (in terms to which the dignity of the house of lords in this country is not accustomed) one of the peers in the speaker's eye.

It is well known that many members of both houses in Ireland were unfriendly to the union. They are said to have had meetings to oppose it; and their chief object was to 'obtain the real sense of the freeholders of the kingdom on the subject of a legislative union,' and for this purpose to procure petitions to parliament from all parts of the realm. This measure, which does not appear extraordinary on this side of the water, is reprobated in the strongest terms. Two noblemen are stigmatised for the part they have taken, and the funds raised for the common expenses are called a consular exchequer. The terms from Ireland had scarcely reached London when the clothiers in England took the alarm: they have already advertised a meeting, and no one thinks it extraordinary that the persons who are most likely to be injured by any public measure should take the lead in alarming others in the same situation, and procuring petitions to parliament to prevent its supposed baneful effects. In Ireland a different sentiment, it should seem by the following paragraph, is entertained.

'Let me ask the two noble lords who have thus put themselves forward, what are the exclusive pretensions of them and their Rt. Hon. colleague to guide the public opinion?—Let me ask them by what authority they have issued their letter missive to every corner of the kingdom, commanding the people to subscribe an instrument fraught with foul and virulent misrepresentation? And let me ask them, Is there salvation for this country under her present government and constitution, when men of their rank and situation can stoop to so shabby and wicked an artifice to excite popular outcry against the declared sense of both houses of parliament? But this is not all, if loud and confident report is to have credit, a consular exchequer has been opened for foul and undisguised bribery. I know that subscriptions are openly solicited in the streets of the metropolis to a fund for defeating the measure of union. I will not believe that the persons to whom I have been obliged to allude can be privy to it. One of them, a noble earl, I see in his place; he is a very young man, and I call upon him as he fears to have his entry into public life marked with dishonour; I call upon him as he fears to live with the broad mark of infamy on his forehead, and to transmit it indelibly to his posterity, to stand up in his place, and acquit himself before his peers of this foul imputation. I call upon him publicly to disavow all knowledge of the existence of such a fund; and if he cannot disavow it, to state explicitly any honest purpose to which it can be applied? If it can exist, I trust there is still sense and honour left in the Irish nation, to cut off the corrupted source of these vile abominations.'

The speech concludes with the usual reference to the advantages obtained by Scotland from its union, and with the proposal of an entire and perfect union of the kingdom of Ireland with Great-Britain. The chief feature of this speech is the warmth which seems to have agitated the speaker; and when we consider the strength he had on his side of the question, both from numbers and the weight of argument, we cannot think that such warmth was necessary. To allay animosity, to cast into shade the parts injurious to the Irish character, to dwell more on the bright side of the question, might seem to be the line of conduct to be expected from the rank and other advantages of the speaker.

Protestant Ascendancy and Catholic Emancipation reconciled by a Legislative Union; with a View of the Transactions in 1782, relative to the Independence of the Irish Parliament, and the present political State of Ireland, as dependant on the Crown, and connected with the Parliament of Great Britain. With an Appendix. 8vo. 3s. Wright. 1800.

‘The irritable pride of two distinct kingdoms, the touchy jealousy of two independent parliaments, and the increasing prosperity of the kingdom of Ireland, all tend, by the physical laws of gravitation, to carry her from her connexion with Great Britain, and act as an increasing centrifugal force. To counteract this force, the influence of the crown, or attractive power, ought to reside in Great Britain, to which she is to be attracted; but if by any circumstance the centripetal power should be added to the centrifugal, separation must be the immediate consequence.’ P. 57.

Our reader must not from this extract form a decisive judgement of the whole work. It is indeed a heavy production. The chief object pointed out in the title-page forms only a small part of the work; but we learn from it an important fact, that the late rebellion raged in three counties, ‘not a tenth of the kingdom, in which the Roman-catholics resident were not a fifteenth part of that persuasion.’

Observations on the Commercial Principles of the projected Union; or, a Free Examination of the Sixth Resolution; being the only one that touches upon Commerce, and carrying a direct Commission to appropriate Ireland, and for ever, as a consuming Colony to the British Manufacturer. 8vo. 2s. Pitkeathley. 1800.

‘Feeling that my awkward mode of reasoning may not be intelligible to every reader, I shall bolster it up with such authority as proves, beyond a possibility of doubt, that so far from intending to communicate any real benefit, at the very instant of yielding what they now hold out as mere liberality, they grudged us the paltry profit that might arise in consequence of exporting our coarse linens under Irish bounties.’ P. 61.

We feel exactly as the author did, and were happy at the conclusion to find that no one wishes more earnestly than he does for the prosperity of the empire, or is more attached to the king and our excellent constitution.

The Speech of the Hon. George Knox, Representative in Parliament for the University of Dublin, in the House of Commons, Feb. 17, 1800, on the Subject of an Incorporate Union of Great Britain and Ireland. 8vo. 6d. Debrett.

The most important objection of this speaker to the union is drawn from the nature of the future representation of Ireland, by which its 'diminished commons will represent but one species of property and but one description of men, and both of that class which is acknowledged to be the most inert.' He is also apprehensive that Dublin will become the seat of democracy; yet he feels the hope that they who, like him, stand equally aloof from the mal-content and the courtier, 'regardless of the driving storms and fretful billows of democracy on the one side, and of the poison which steams from the stagnant pool of despotism on the other, will with him yet take their stand upon the firm and lofty promontory of the constitution.' The promontory on which the future representatives of Ireland will stand will without doubt be very constitutional; and, like those of Scotland, they will be zealous to show their attachment to the prosperity of the empire.

The Speech (at length) of the Hon. Henry Grattan, in the Irish House of Commons, against the Union with Great Britain. 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1800.

This speech threatens Ireland with ruin, if the portentous union should take place; yet, when two assumptions are removed, there seems little to excite apprehension. The first is, that the arrangement in 1782 was final; of which so much has been said, that it is not necessary to repeat this speaker's arguments, or to state our observations upon them. Whatever the arrangement might have been,—the parliament of Ireland in 1800 is as competent to make a new arrangement as that of 1782 was to make the old one. The second assumption is, that in case of union Ireland will be governed by a British parliament. We might as well say that England will be governed by an Irish parliament. The simple question is, whether the interests of both countries will be best consulted by the representatives of both, meeting in one legislature, or by two independent legislatures, or whether an Irish county will not be as much attended to as one in England or in Scotland; and we see no solid ground of argument in this speech to justify the speaker's conjectures; we mean, if the two islands should be fairly represented; and this must be determined by the articles, which seem to hold out as desirable terms to Ireland as can be expected. On the danger of the corruption of the Irish members, we cannot dissent from

Mr. Grattan ; but in this they will be on a level with the Scotch and English members ; and the air of St. James's will not be more pernicious to them than that of the castle at Dublin. Corruption has so tainted the country, and its powers have been so enlarged by a variety of concurrent causes within these few years, that no one will hazard a conjecture on the conduct of the imperial parliament, whether it will act up to the old ideas of a constitutional parliament, or be like a Roman senate, entirely subservient to the views of the sovereign. We cannot agree with this speaker that the catholics will be injured by the union. In Great-Britain a general liberality on religious subjects prevails ; a latitude of opinion is allowed ; and common sense and time have proved that a catholic gentleman may be as good a subject as a protestant. Hence, when the extension of privileges shall be discussed in an imperial parliament, the Irish catholic will be much more likely to gain a point than if he had urged his suit in his own country, embittered by local prejudices and rival interests.

A Reply to the Speech delivered in the Irish House of Commons on Wednesday, Jan. 15, 1800, by Mr. Grattan, on the Subject of a Legislative Union. By an Absentee. 8vo. 6d. Hatchard, 1800.

Common-place abuse ! such as, we presume, an Irish house of commons would not have permitted the writer to utter in his place.

Observations on Dr. Duigenan's Fair Representation of the present Political State of Ireland ; particularly, with respect to his Structures on a Pamphlet, entitled the Case of Ireland reconsidered. By Patrick Lattin, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1800.

The puerile remarks of Dr. Duigenan on the danger to be apprehended from certain tenets of the catholics are refuted with some degree of prolixity, but with great strength of argument and historical evidence. The supposed intolerance of the catholics, in consigning to perdition such as are not of their creed, is contrasted with the similar opinion of the church of England and other religious communities ; and the damnatory clause of St. Athanasius, which is equally maintained by the churches of England and Rome, is produced as an argument that one is as blameable as the other in the article of intolerance. The absurdity of Dr. Duigenan's positions is farther pointed out by our uniting with the forces of the catholic, Greek, and Mohammedan churches, by taking the word of these sectaries in other countries, while he supposes that the Irish catholic would not keep faith with the protestant. The real fact is, that in the common affairs of life a religious creed is not of the consequence which is generally attributed to it. An Irish catholic and an Irish protestant will go to their respective churches in the morning, and consign to perdition those of a different opinion from themselves ; but in the afternoon they will spend their time cheerfully together, for-

get their religious differences, and be attentive only to the duties of social intercourse. It is time to forget the follies of our ancestors, their persecuting spirit, and their burning of witches. The late Irish rebellion was not a popish one: the chief leaders were protestants; and religion had little concern with it: the head of the catholic church in Ireland even fulminated his excommunications with great liberality against the rebels.

RELIGION.

Diateffaron: five integra Historia Domini Græce, ex IV. Evangeliiis inter se collatis ipsisque Evangelitarum Verbis aptè et ordinate Dispositis confecta. Subjungitur Evangeliorum Harmonia brevis. Edidit J. White, S. T. P. &c. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. 1800.

The complete History of our Lord in Greek, with a Harmony of the four Gospels.

The name of this work is taken from a similar one applied in the early ages of the Christian church to a harmony of the four gospels. This is also a harmony of the four gospels; and it is drawn up with great judgement. The author intended it for the students of the universities; but we would rather extend its advantage, and should be happy to see it introduced into our schools. At present, it is customary to put the Greek Testament into the hands of boys on their initiation in the Greek language; and their books are worn out long before they can read the epistles either with ease or advantage. By a substitution of this work for the Greek Testament, they will have all the advantages which they derived from the complete volume, besides a connected view of our Saviour's life, which, by making in early years a due impression on their memory, may afterwards excite a greater attention to sacred study. In this harmony, Dr. White, with great reason, follows Dr. Newcome, the much-lamented archbishop of Armagh. He assigns three years and a half for the duration of our Saviour's ministry, who, in this period, celebrated three passovers completely, and, after eating the paschal supper on the fourth, was crucified. The work is divided into seven parts. In the first is contained the evangelical history of events that took place before our Saviour was thirty years old. The second comprehends the baptism, the temptation, and the marriage at Cana. The third commences with the first passover celebrated by our Saviour after his baptism, and terminates with the healing of the paralytic, and the call of Matthew at Capernaum. The fourth begins with the second passover, contains the sermon in the mount, and ends with the secession of many disciples at Capernaum, and our Lord's prognostication of the traitorous disposition of the twelve who remained with him. The fifth part opens with the conversation between our Saviour and the Pharisees on the superstitious baptisms of their utensils, and ends

with the detested agreement between Judas and the priests. The sixth division contains the history of part of three days, part of the day on which our Saviour ate the paschal lamb, the following day on which he was crucified, part of the next day during which he remained in the tomb, and on the evening of which the women purchased and prepared the necessary articles for embalming his body. The seventh part gives an account of forty days, from the morning on which our Redeemer rose from the dead to the day of Pentecost. Each part is divided into paragraphs with a short Latin superscription of its contents; and in the margin on one side is inscribed the time, and on the other the place, corresponding with the transaction recorded. From the excellence of the type, and the arrangement of the work, we flatter ourselves that this harmony will find its way into our schools, and thus gratify the laudable ambition of the editor, whose labours have been employed with no less honour to himself than utility to the public.

The Principles of Roman-Catholics and Unitarians contrasted. A Sermon, written with Reference to the Charges brought against those who maintain the Doctrine of the Divine Unity in the strictest Sense, by Dr. Horsley. Preached on Tuesday, Nov. 5, 1799, to a Congregation of Protestant Dissenters, in St. Saviourgate, York, and published at the Request of the Audience, by Charles Wellbeloved. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. 1800.

The subject of this discourse arose from an unguarded expression of a prelate, which might rather have been suffered to drop into oblivion than to occupy the thoughts of a religious congregation. The comparison of any two classes of Christians can be attended with little advantage, whilst we have the sure word of God, to which test all our opinions and practices should be brought. Whether the unitarians or the catholics are the nearest to the church of England, it is not easy, in so small a compass, to determine; and, if it should appear that the churches of England and Rome could unite, this is an inferior subject of concern to the member of any other community, whose employment ought to be to examine the purity of his own faith, or, if he should scrutinise that of others, to show only how far they have deviated in his opinion from the word of God. The unitarians have assumed to themselves a peculiar name, grounded on their peculiar apprehensions of God: they confine the godhead to one person, and in this head they are farther removed from the church of England than the catholic. The catholic and the unitarian agree that the church and state are perfectly distinct from each other: the church of England allows supremacy in all ecclesiastical concerns to the king. On the seventeenth article it is difficult to draw the comparison, since so great a difference now prevails among the clergy in the interpretation of it; and, as was said of Locke, many persons of high authority seem to be sailing with a side wind to Racovia. The quotations from

the Elements of Theology, lately published by the bishop of Lincoln, assuredly justify the preacher in part of his discourse; and, if one bishop possesses so much candour and liberality (according to the now commonly received notion of these terms), some allowance may be made for the intemperate language of the other bishop; and, on balancing the works of the two prelates, the unitarians will probably find very little reason to complain. The defence however of the unitarians is well penned. There is a becoming spirit in vindicating their peculiar opinions, as well as a sufficient degree of diffidence and humility in speaking of themselves; and the exhortations to a purer mode of conduct agreeably to their doctrine entitle the preacher to great respect. He must not be surprised that we do not accede to his vindication of the term rational Christians; for let him explain it as he pleases, it implies either that all other Christians are irrational, which is offensive, or that some are guided by reason instead of faith, which is not scriptural. The denomination at any rate is conceited, and, like the term evangelical, assumed by another class of Christians, has a tendency to excite arrogance and presumption on the one hand, and on the other disgust and contempt.

A Discourse, preached at the Parish-Church of Manaccan, on Sunday, August 27th, 1797; in consequence of two Melancholy Events. By the Rev. Richard Polwhele. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

From a thunder-storm and a murder in his parish, the preacher takes the opportunity of suggesting some useful reflexions to his hearers; but it was scarcely necessary to inform the bishop, in a particular dedication, of his mode of teaching his flock; or to say, 'I acquiesce not in the poor reflexion that I have already composed a sufficient number of discourses for all future purposes; but seize every occasion of speaking from the pulpit on some new object.' This mode of self-commendation may excite jealousy among his brethren.

Daubenism confuted, and Martin Luther vindicated. With further Remarks on the false Quotations adduced by the Reverend Charles Daubeney, Presbyter of the Church of England, and Fellow of Winchester-College, in his late Publications. Intended as a Supplement to Reformation-Truth restored. In a Letter to Mr. Daubeney. By Sir Richard Hill, Bart. M. P. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

Sir R. Hill has invented a new *ism*, with which he seems to be well pleased; but, as he throws no new light on the controversy, and persists in his error of vindicating schismatical baptism, we cannot flatter him with the title, which he seems with such confidence to assume to himself, of a true friend and son of the church.

L A W.

The Proceedings at large on the Trial of an Action brought by Mr. John Mackell, of Park-Lane, Smith; against Mr. John Hanson, of Bruton Street, Smith, and furnishing Ironmonger, to the King. For a supposed Libel on the Plaintiff, in a Pamphlet published by the Defendant, relative to the Prices charged by Mr. Mackell, for the Iron Railing made by him, for inclosing Gardens in the Green-Park. Before the Rt. Hon. Lloyd, Lord Kenyon, and a Special Jury, at Guildhall, London, on Saturday, the 29th Day of June, 1799. Taken in Short Hand, by Joseph Gurney. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Wright. 1799.

The defendant's character is fully vindicated by the issue of this trial; and in publishing the proceedings he has performed a service to the public and to himself. The railing in the green-park, which separates the private gardens from the park, was performed by the plaintiff; but his employers conceived the charges to be exorbitant, and the defendant was of the same opinion. In consequence of expressing that opinion, the latter was prosecuted for a supposed libel, and this prosecution brought before the court architects, surveyors, master and working smiths; and the plaintiff was nonsuited. We will transcribe a remark from the judge which may give the readers a just idea of the evidence.

‘*Lord Kenyon.* I should have remarked, upon some of the evidence that has been given in the cause,—I think it is very scandalous.—How, in God's name, are mankind deluded, when the more the person they employ as their surveyor cheats his employer, the more he enhances his own profits! It was a very sensible observation that was made by one of the gentlemen of the jury, that the more exorbitant the charge is which the surveyor allows, the more money he puts into his own pocket.’ P. 162.

Not being accustomed to attend our courts of law, we were surprised at the coarseness of the language as well as the vulgarity of the jokes put into the mouths of the pleaders. One argument used in the defence ends with a remark which we cannot permit to pass without notice. ‘It is the duty of every tradesman to have but one mode of charging. He ought not to charge more to a peer than a cobbler.’ This would be right, if peers were as punctual in their payments as cobblers; but, if the former take very long credit and the latter pay ready money, common sense points out that a difference out to be made. The defendant, with a due sense of his merits in his profession, has given a representation of the gates which he erected at the entrance of the green-park, Piccadilly. We do not think that he will lose by the attack upon his character: it will probably be the means of recommending him to greater practice. Men of fortune, who are going to engage in iron work, will do well

to read this trial before they make the final agreement with their smith; and, from this account, they will understand the nature of the confidence which they are to repose in a surveyor.

An Abridgment of the modern Determinations in the Courts of Law and Equity: being a Supplement to Viner's Abridgment. By several Gentlemen in the respective Branches of the Law. Vol. I. and II. 8vo. 11. 8s. Boards. Robinsons. 1799.

The established character and authority of Viner's Abridgement render it an essential part of the library of every practising lawyer. It was intended that this supplement should form, in conjunction with that Abridgement, a complete body of judicial decisions, comprehending the cases determined since the publication of Viner's original work. Of the two volumes now presented to the public the first contains the following advertisement.

'In pursuance of the undertaking of compiling a Supplement to Mr. Viner's Abridgment, and of the plan proposed on occasion of the late republication of that work, engagements have some time since been entered into with several gentlemen of experience and approved ability in the respective branches of the profession, as the obvious means of effecting that purpose in the most speedy and comprehensive manner. Several unforeseen circumstances have hitherto retarded the complete execution of that object; but from the present state of forwardness of the remaining materials, and from the operation of further arrangements which are now adopted to prevent delay, the proprietors on the present occasion of the publication of the two first volumes of the work, feel themselves warranted in promising to the public, and to the purchasers of the new edition of Viner's Abridgment in particular, a regular and expeditious publication of the remainder of the work, which they trust will be found to be executed in a manner to claim general approbation and encouragement.' P. iii.

The volumes before us form a specimen of judicious and accurate abridgement that will induce the members of the profession to wish for the early completion of the work. We think that some intimation ought to have been given by the publishers of its probable extent.

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the High Court of Admiralty; commencing with the Judgments of the Right Hon. Sir William Scott, Michaelmas Term, 1798. By Chr. Robinson, LL. D. Advocate. Volume the First. Part 1. 8vo. 5s. sewed. Butterworth. 1799.

This is the first part of an intended series of cases, adjudged in a court which now abounds with business. Thirty-three cases are here reported, some of which are of considerable importance. The

statements appear to be correct; and the abilities and reputation of Sir William Scott confer celebrity on the publication.

M E D I C I N E, &c.

An Essay on the Medical Properties of the Digitalis Purpurea, or Fox-glove, by John Ferriar, M. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

On the use of fox-glove, practitioners greatly differ. While all consider it as not only an active but a dangerous medicine, the more timid forego the advantages expected, from the dread of its injurious powers. We own ourselves in part of this class; and, though we employ it, fear mingles with hope in the progress, and we dearly earn the credit we may acquire by success, from apprehension of failure. It has certainly succeeded with us in dropsies of the worst kind; but, in the other complaints for which it has been recommended, we have almost uniformly had occasion to regret its failure. Dr. Ferriar directs its use more rationally and satisfactorily than his predecessors, and seems to speak of it, though perhaps too warmly, with judgement and propriety. Two remarks we ought particularly to notice: the one, that the effects are very different in different constitutions, so that the smallest dose should be first cautiously tried; the other, that, even where it seems to succeed, the effects must be *hourly* watched, to prevent their going too far. We know not that we have in any case seen it materially beneficial, without affecting, with unpleasant feelings, both the head and stomach.

Dr. Ferriar properly distinguishes its narcotic from its diuretic powers, thinking that these may operate together or separately, and proposes to join with half a grain of digitalis a grain of calomel, and eight grains of Dover's powder. In hæmorrhages, dropsy, and phthisis, it has been already recommended. Dr. Ferriar adds to the list chronic coughs, spasmodic asthma, palpitations of the heart, not depending on simple debility, and perhaps croup. As a lotion it seems to have succeeded in painful herpetic affections, and is likely to be useful in anthrax and gangrene from irritability.

Remarks on Mr. John Bell's Anatomy of the Heart and Arteries. By Jonathan Dawplucker, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons. 1799.

We were highly pleased with Mr. John Bell's first publication on the bones, reviewed in our XIIth Vol. New Arr.; but his second work on the arteries (Vol. XXII. New Arr.) seemed of a very inferior cast. Our lively critic, Jonathan Daw-plucker, has selected the latter work as the object of his severity, and uses the lash with little mercy, sharpening the pain by the most provoking sneers. He has seized some very exceptionable parts; and the new logic displayed in the treatise, which, from the inventor, he styles

John-Bell-ation, is described in a manner so truly humorous, as to excite frequent laughter. Mr. Bell has, we apprehend, replied with equal humour and severity; but we have not yet met with this reply. On the whole, we cannot approve this method of wantonly sporting with reputations; errors may be reprehended, without wounding the feelings; but a reviewer must be better pleased with the lively raillery of these combatants, than with the more cool severity of a late contest.

A short Account of the Infectious Malignant Fever, as it appeared at Uxbridge, and its Vicinity, in the Summer and Autumn of the Year 1799; with a Detail of the good Effects of Yeast, and Vital Air, in the different Stages of that Disorder. By a Medical Practitioner. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cox. 1799.

The fever was produced by miasmata, from the neighbouring marshes, and relieved by the common methods. It was only peculiar from the absence of the inflammatory symptoms which often precede even the worst fevers. The use of yeast in typhus is not generally known; but it appears to be an useful antiputrescent. The vital air with which the room was filled was procured from nitre. On the whole, the description is clear and judicious; and the author is apparently a well-informed and able practitioner.

Plain and useful Instructions for the Relief and Cure of Ruptures: shewing their general Cause and dangerous Consequences when neglected or badly treated: wherein is pointed out the many Impositions the afflicted are liable to; in ten Particulars: with the Author's Improvements and Inventions on Elastic Trusses, &c. Also Advice to Parents who have weak, ricketty, crooked, and deformed Children. An Address to Medical Gentlemen in the Country, Army and Navy Surgeons; also useful Directions for Persons at a Distance to measure and apply Trusses, and other Bandages. By J. Edy, M. S. D. Illustrated with Engravings of the several Instruments invented, made, and improved by him, for the various Deformities and Infirmities of the Human Body. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Symonds. 1800.

This author is not unwilling to be the herald of his own fame; and his self-applause is only equaled by his abuse of all who pretend to cure ruptures, except himself. His machines, however, appear to be ingeniously contrived, though, from what we have seen of their use, they are by no means so certainly effectual as he represents them.

EDUCATION.

Hebrew made easy; or a short and plain Introduction to the sacred Hebrew Language, compiled in a new Method, with Extracts from the best Hebrew Grammars. By the Rev. Richard Codaick, of Christ-Church, Oxford. 8vo. 1s. Symonds. 1799.

The author of this first number of a Hebrew grammar seems unreasonably desirous of rendering his grammar conformable to the

Latin. His nouns are declined, like the Latin, with fix cases, though the Hebrew is in this respect the most simple of all languages, admitting no change in its nouns, except to distinguish the plural from the singular, and the feminine from the masculine. Hence the rabbinical *shel* is put as a mark of the Hebrew genitive, though it is equally applicable to the dative; and the article *ha* or *the* is also appropriated to the genitive without reason. To a person not acquainted with the Latin, the learning of these cases is very unnecessary labour; and the instances of declension are superfluous. As the grammar is written in English, it would have been much better throughout to adapt it to the English scholar, to avoid the term *in regimine*, and to follow rather the system of the Hebrew than the Latino-Hebrew grammarians. By following the latter, our author makes three tenses, though they do not exceed two in Hebrew. He also adopts their mode of illustration in other points. With regard to the pronunciation of the letters, the *tseri*, which is pronounced by the Hebrews like *a* in *care*, is represented by him as resembling, in sound, the diphthong *ea* in *heal*. The long *hirec* we are directed to pronounce like *i* in *while*, instead of *ee* in *heel*, and the *holem* like *o* in *now*, instead of *o* in *bone*. The *ain* is properly referred to *gn* or *ng*, in *song*; but, when it occurs in the middle of a word, it loses with this writer its appropriate sound, and becomes a simple vowel. We have pointed out these defects in the first number, that similar errors may be avoided in future; and, as we wish to encourage every attempt to facilitate the study of the Scriptures, we shall be happy in accompanying this author in his progress, and contributing to render his work useful to the English scholar.

A compendious Hebrew Grammar, exhibiting at one View upwards of two Hundred of the most essential Rules; illustrated with accurate Tables, in order to facilitate the Study of the sacred Language. By S. Lyon, Teacher of Hebrew to the University of Cambridge.

The grammar of the Hebrew language is here exhibited on a large sheet. It does great honour to the author, and will prove very useful to the learner. From this produce of the university press, we are encouraged to hope that the Hebrew language is cultivated with some ardour at Cambridge. The students have an advantage which we had not in our times, that of an excellent teacher; and surely there must be strong inducements to the study of this language in a place where the greater part of the students profess to devote themselves to religious instruction; a task which they cannot well perform without some proficiency in the Hebrew. We may add, that this grammar will show with what comparative facility the language may be learned.

A complete Introduction to the Knowledge of the French Language ; containing the Substance of the most approved Grammars ; such as Chambaud, Salmon, Porney, Perrin, Restaut, Wanostrocht, Wailey, Abbé de Levizac, &c. in which their different Rules and Observations are selected and compressed within a smaller Compass than in any Work of a similar Nature. Vol. I. 12mo. 2s. Johnson. 1799.

Some of Mr. Crabb's critical remarks on former French grammars are judicious; but, like many other compilers, he found it more easy to criticise than improve the works of his predecessors.

Abrégé de l'Histoire de la Bible ; destiné à l'Avancement du Christianisme : où l'on fait voir la Liaison de l'Histoire sacrée et profane ; tiré des Ecrits des Historiens, des Théologiens, et des Commentateurs, les plus célèbres. Traduit de l'Anglois, mais sur un Plan différent de l'Original. Imprimé pour la Traductrice. 8vo. Wilkie. 1799.

Abridgement of the History of the Bible : in which is displayed the Connexion between sacred and profane History ; translated from the English.

This is a very plain account of the history of the Old and New Testament, which may be with great advantage put into the hands of young persons who are learning the French language. A portion of it may serve as an useful task in schools for the Sundays, as it will combine scriptural information and proficiency in literary studies.

P O E T R Y.

The Parish Priest : a Poem. 4to. 5s. Boards. Robinsons. 1800.

This work is a free translation of a Latin poem, entitled *Sacerdos Parœcialis Rusticus*, written by the reverend John Burton, and printed in 1757. It traces the parish priest through all his duties, to the hour of death, when he expects the reward promised for them. Too large a portion of this poem is employed in describing the Liturgy; and it was an ill-judged attempt of the English writer to paraphrase into verse the unimprovable Lord's Prayer. We extract this part with the preceding lines.

' Parent of all things ! from whose word began
The heav'ns, and earth, with all the race of man ;
Thou from the first creation didst command
That every seventh day should sacred stand
To thee devoted—joyful to obey,
And give due honour to the welcome day,
Behold the country-folks with serious care,
In their best habits clad, to church repair.
There, in the midst, with mild and placid mien,
The much-lov'd venerable priest is seen ;

The band, the beaver, and the flowing gown
 Distinguish him, and as he walks, each clown
 And rustic maiden, pay, with rev'rence low,
 The modest curtesy, or unpolish'd bow.
 The porch he enters, with a murm'ring sound,
 Th' attentive congregation rises round;
 E'en the rough 'squire, accustom'd to despise
 His humble neighbours, yet, behold him rise
 His pious minister's approach to greet,
 Nor till he passes re-assumes his seat;
 The shrill-ton'd bell for worship bids prepare,
 Admonishing the ear and mind to pray'r;
 The surplice round him hangs with decent grace,
 And to the desk he walks with solemn pace.
 Now, lifting up to heav'n his eyes and hands,
 In silent eloquence awhile he stands;
 His voice almost inspir'd attention wins,
 When he the sacred Liturgy begins.

' Whoe'er thou art within these hallow'd walls,
 Reflect that God himself upon thee calls;
 Be serious now, shake off each earthly care,
 An off'ring worthy of thy God prepare;
 Each vice abandon, every sin confess,
 Low on thy knees repentant shame express;
 So shalt thou soon throw off the galling load,
 And taste the boundless mercy of thy God.

' Hark! the glad sound of peace salutes thine ear,
 And bids the guilty sinner cease to fear.

' O come all ye whose grateful hearts can feel,
 O come with souls inflam'd by holy zeal;
 Your God with filial confidence address,
 And in your Saviour's words your pray'r express.

" God of the Universe! Who yet dost deign
 To be the friend, and father of mankind,
 On thee we call—Thy glorious kingdom rise
 Triumphant o'er its foes—And let thy will
 On earth controul us, as in heav'n it rules
 The blessed angels which surround thy throne.
 Of food and raiment to our wants supply
 A mod'rate portion, not to pamper pride,
 Or nourish folly, but to give the means
 Of ease and comfort. Pardon, righteous Judge,
 Our many sins; thy mercy only flows
 To them whose hearts are merciful, do thou
 Forgive our trespasses as we forgive
 All who to us have ever giv'n offence.
 Pity our weakness; guard us from the pow'r
 Of all temptations; and from wicked men,

And evil spirits, keep thy servants safe.
Hear us, O Lord! these blessings at thy hand
We humbly beg, because to thee belong
Eternal Glory, Majesty, and Pow'r." P. 8.

The Summer's Eve; a Poem. By John Bidlake, A. B. 8vo.
4s. Boards. Murray and Highley. 1800.

This is a desultory poem, for which many titles as proper as the Summer's Eve might be suggested. Mr. Bidlake's poetry is marked by no peculiarity; the lines flow easily, and the tenor is unexceptionable. We find no passage of prominent excellence; the following may be considered as a fair specimen of the whole volume:

' In poets' fancy-dreams the rural bow'r
Is void of care, and blest each rural hour;
They boast there plenty ever dwells, and there
Each Strephon constant, and each Phillis fair;
And if perchance with love, their happy lot
Should fix them in some small sequester'd cot,
Be sure they feed on joys that ne'er decline,
They drink love's nectar, and on raptures dine.
But ah! where'er poor man shall hide his head,
Fast on his steps will certain Misery tread;
With giant pace his weary paths invade,
O'er opening bliss diffusing nights of shade.

' See yonder hovel! mark the tottering roof!
Against no angry pelting tempest proof:
See through the broken pane; with visit rude,
Each wind familiarly dares intrude!
While hourly trembling in the crumbling wall;
Suspensive danger threatens its instant fall.
Within the squalid family complain
Of lingering want and ever-during pain:
There to their rugged beds the hungry creep,
And try to lose their griefs in friendly sleep:
There, sad companions! dwell lean wasting Care;
Chill Penury, and hopeless, fix'd Despair.
Yet there some solitary joys are found,
With friendly balm to heal the gnawing wound.
There love, not frightened from the sooty cell,
With wretchedness is still content to dwell;
Life's Charity, that smooths the wrinkled brow,
And gilds the gloom of all our pains below.
E'en Friendship there will not disdain to rest,
Nor Sleep, who loves to doze on Labour's breast:
See o'er her sleeping babe the mother bends,
The cradle rocks, and all its slumbers tends.
Ah! see how anxious love and tender fear
Fast from her lids distil the trembling tear;

Affection's tears, more worth than gems can own
 That beauty deck, or glitter in a crown.
 Thou cradled babe! how does my bosom beat,
 To think what ills thy future paths await:
 Pride on thy humble birth shall sternly frown,
 And dark Oppression claim thee for his own,
 And thou adversity e'er doom'd to taste,
 A spring bud struggling in the wildest waste.
 Yet one hope cheers; if Misery frown around,
 Yet still with tender Care thy birth is crown'd:
 Yet he who dooms to thorny paths thy birth
 Shall yet give comfort on this dreary earth.
 Amid this world of woe the gilded ray
 Of cheerful Hope illumines the dreariest way:
 The officious deeds of tender duty give
 A cordial balm to keep that hope alive.
 Wealth may buy slaves, but wealth cannot procure
 What must be e'er unbought, if it be pure;
 And though the sharpest pangs of ill we prove,
 Life's bitter draught is sweet to all through love." p. 38.

Mr. Bidlake frequently uses the Alexandrine in the first line of a couplet, and once he has a line of eight syllables. If these varieties are unpleasant, it is perhaps only because they are unexpected. We have only to caution this author against awkward personifications; such as,

'A thin, pellucid veil, while *Saffron* spreads.' p. 1.

'Outstretch'd *Attention* stills the whispering ground.' p. 3.

'ardent *Colour* glows'—

Cultivation, Sound, Gloom, &c. Mr. Bidlake should read the Sonnet upon Personification in the Annual Anthology.

N O V E L S, &c.

The Story of Al-Raoui, a Tale from the Arabic. 8vo, 2s. 6d.
 Geisweiler.

It appears from the preface to this interesting little story, that the translation was executed above sixteen years ago, and still would have remained in oblivion, had not the notices of an Arabic manuscript belonging to captain Scott, which occur in Sir William Ouseley's Oriental Collections, suggested the persuasion of the identity of this tale with one contained in that manuscript.

The orientalist will be pleased to learn that its identity and authenticity are now confirmed by the publication of the original Arabic, with a literal translation by captain Scott, in the second volume of the Oriental Collections.

To give even the slightest outlines of so short a story would anticipate the reader's pleasure: we shall therefore content ourselves with observing that the ingenious translator, although he uses the words *Al-Raoui* as a proper name, was not ignorant (as appears from the dedication) of their true meaning. *Al* is merely the Arabic article, and *Raoui* signifies a narrator or story-teller.

Twenty pages of this little volume are filled with an accurate and spirited German translation of the tale by M. Gelsweiler; and the last thirteen pages contain some English poems, which the author annexes for the sake of correcting several typographical errors that had disfigured them in a former edition.

These verses possess considerable merit, and sufficiently evince the poetical talents of the author, who is, we understand, a clergyman distinguished by profound learning, acuteness in criticism, and ingenuity in antiquarian researches.

The Mad Man of the Mountain: a Tale. By Henry Summerfelt, Author of *Probable Incidents*, &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. sewed. Lane. 1799.

Roncorone, a supposed Venetian, recounts in these volumes his adventures and misfortunes. He becomes enamoured of Rosolie, an amiable Florentine; but, as his father had been at variance with Salvini, the guardian of the young lady, he meets with some obstructions to his eager wishes. Rosolie is carried off by Salvini, whom, however, she firmly refuses to marry. Having conceived a strong affection for Roncorone, she resolves to take the first opportunity of escaping from her confinement. In the mean time, her lover, having procured some intelligence of the place of her abode, hastens in quest of her. In his way, he unknowingly rescues Salvini from the danger of being killed by a fall down a precipice; follows him to his house; and bears away Rosolie in triumph. He now espouses her, and passes some time in all the joys of chaste love. But his happiness is at length overwhelmed by the loss of his wife, who is seized in his absence, again confined by Salvini, and insidiously polluted by his adulterous lust. Her death being occasioned by this brutal treatment, the incensed husband murders Salvini, proclaims his guilt, and is condemned to death; but escapes from prison, and dies in exile.

Such is the substance of this novel. The character of the hero is drawn with spirit: that of his friend Aiberti is amiable and interesting; and the language, though frequently inaccurate, is better than that of many of our recent novels. Upon the whole, we are of opinion that the author possesses some talents for fictitious narrative.

Henry of Northumberland, or the Hermit's Cell; a Tale of the Fifteenth Century. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. sewed. Lane. 1800.

A desultory, ill-constructed, and uninteresting tale.

Adeline St. Julian; or, the Midnight Hour; a Novel. By Mrs. Anne Ker, Authoress of the *Heiress di Montalde*. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. sewed. 1799.

Many ladies, from the frequent perusal of novels, acquire a set of phrases which they know not how to apply, and treasure up in their minds a variety of incidents, calculated to amuse or astonish. If they have been praised by illiterate and ill-judging friends for their talents at letter-writing, though their epistles may have no other recommendation than pertness or vivacity, they consider themselves as fully qualified to write a novel which may gratify even the most judicious readers. With a small share of invention or of common sense, and with still less knowledge of the arts of composition, they enter upon the task of adding to the stock of the circulating library. They manufacture a tale from former works of narrative invention, with some trifling or absurd alterations or additions, and advertise the produce of their futile labour as a new novel or romance. Mrs. Anne Ker appears to have followed this example; for her tale of *Adeline* is a wretched *farrago*, with no novelty of fable, no original delineation of character, and not even common accuracy of language. Deprecating, as we do, such a prostitution of the press, we advise this lady to relinquish the employment of writing for the public. Let the '*Midnight Hour*' be involved in congenial darkness; and let the pretensions of the '*Heiress di Montalde*' be consigned to oblivion.

Harcourt; a Novel; by the Author of the Mysterious Wife, &c. 4 Vols. 12mo. 18s. sewed. Lane, 1799.

This novel is not so despicable as many which we have had the misfortune to peruse. The principal character is that of a spirited, generous, and virtuous young man, who, after appearing at first as an outcast, obtains great wealth and the honours of nobility. The characters of Sir Archibald Mackenzie and his wife are well drawn; the conversations introduced are frequently lively and entertaining; and some degree of interest is excited by the narrative. But we must add, that the work is unnecessarily extended, that some of the incidents are trite, and that various parts of the novel are absurd and frivolous.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

Philosophy of Mineralogy. By Robert Townson, LL. D. &c. 8vo. 7s. Boards. White.

As Dr. Townson has not had encouragement to complete his promised work *, we must be contented with the present introduction, which is light, popular, and intelligible. It is a pleasing and elegant guide to mineralogy, the first step to the more recondite systems of Cronstedt, Kirwan, &c. The author, in his haste, has

* See Travels through Hungary, at the end.

committed some errors; for instance, where he speaks of airs 'always existing in a state of gas,' though component parts of fossils. The reader who has perused the 'Philosophy of Chemistry' may, perhaps, be disgusted at the title; for M. Fourcroy's work is a comprehensive view of the whole science, while that of Dr. Townson is only an introduction to his subject. We make this distinction with no invidious view, but to prevent mistakes; for each has equal merit in his own department. The plates, particularly the frontispiece, illustrate with great neatness the appearances and formation of veins.

Journal of a Tour through the North of England and Parts of Scotland. With Remarks on the present State of the established Church of Scotland, and the different Secessions therefrom. Together with Reflections on some Party Distinctions in England; shewing the Origin of these Disputes, and the Causes of their Separation. Designed to promote brotherly Love and Forbearance among Christians of all Denominations. Also some Remarks on the Propriety of what is called lay and itinerant Preaching. By Rowland Hill, A. M. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Chapman, 1799.

This is a species of production which may be considered as independent of the tribunal of criticism, the number of its readers not being likely to be diminished or increased by our censure or applause. The rev. Mr. Rowland Hill is well known as a leading preacher among the methodists, and, however eccentric may be the character of his pulpit eloquence, he deserves, in our opinion, the respect and approbation due to a man of a respectable family, who, relinquishing undoubted expectations in the established church, has for a series of years sincerely and actively devoted himself to the propagation of the Gospel according to his notions of the truth.

Mr. Hill's tour contains no new topographical information, but will be interesting to those who wish to observe the progress of methodism in Scotland and the northern parts of England. It is written with that *naïveté* of manner by which the preaching of the author is distinguished, and includes curious reflections on some divisions in the Scottish church.

A Prayer and Sermon, delivered at Charlestown, December 31, 1799, on the Death of George Washington, late President, and Commander in Chief of the Armies of the United States of America; who departed this Life at Mount Vernon, in Virginia, on the 14th of the same Month, in the 69th Year of his Age. With an additional Sketch of his Life. By Jedidiah Morse, D. D. Pastor of the Church in Charlestown. To which is prefixed, an Account of the Proceedings of the Town on the melancholy Occasion. Written by Josiah Bartlett, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale, 1800.

The sensations of the subjects of the American republic on the death of their deliverer and hero, are justified, in our opinion, by

the singular worth of the character of Washington, which may challenge all antiquity to a comparison. Never did Greece or Rome boast of a patriot more tried, more disinterested, or more qualified for the station which he occupied. It may be true that Washington was not a man of splendid qualifications, but his qualifications were equally rare and more important than those of the most brilliant order; they were solid, enabling him exactly to appreciate the worth of others; they were under the guidance of a temper so equal, of a candor so liberal, of a conduct so exact, in the most minute particulars, that we believe it to be as uncommon to meet with a Washington in point of moral and intellectual qualification, as it is to meet with a Burke, a Cicero, or a Cæsar.—If we judge of the proceedings at Charlestown as men, we sympathise with the inhabitants in the expression of their just feelings; but, if we judge of these published documents as critics, we must pronounce upon them an unfavourable judgement. The prayer is declamatory and vulgar; and the sermon is chiefly employed in a dull and senseless comparison between the characters of Washington and Moses. One blemish appears on the character of Washington in common with that of many of the greatest patriots of antiquity: we allude to his encouragement of personal slavery upon his estates. We should have been glad that the American deliverer had wiped away this *damned spot* during his life, rather than have secured its extinction by his will.

Thoughts on Marriage, and Criminal Conversation, with some Hints of appropriate Means to check the Progress of the latter; comprising Remarks on the Life, Opinions, and Example of the late Mrs. Wollstonecraft Godwin: respectfully addressed and inscribed to the Right Hon. Lord Kenyon, Lord Chief Justice of the Court of King's Bench. By a Friend to Social Order. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1799.

The author of these thoughts justly laments the frequency with which the connubial engagement is violated. The purity of that institution is indeed of the utmost importance to the welfare of civilised society; but we doubt whether the remedy proposed by the present writer, that of imprisoning the adulterer, be an eligible or a practicable mode of reforming the evil.

A Defence of the Sunday Schools: attempted in a Series of Letters, addressed to the Rev. M. Olerenshaw, in Answer to his 'Sermon on the Sanctification of the Sabbath, and on the right Use and the Abuse of Sunday Schools.' By J. Mayer. 12mo. 1s. Chapman, Four Letters to Mr. J. Mayer, of Stockport, on his Defence of the Sunday Schools. By Thomas Whitaker, Minister of Ringway, Cheshire. 8vo. 6d. Chapman.

Candid Animadversions on the Rev. Thomas Whitaker's Four Letters. By J. Mayer. 12mo. 6d. Chapman.

We should have much regretted the necessity for a formal defence

of so excellent an institution as Sunday schools, had we not found, upon a perusal of these pamphlets, that the controversy, carried on in them, deviated from the main question into certain personal disputes uninteresting to the public at large. Some of these schools may be improperly conducted, and some may be conducted with greater strictness of discipline than others; but surely no plan can be formed more likely to produce a favourable change in the manners of the nation, than that which embraces the due observance of the sabbath.

A Letter to the Rev. Percival Stockdale, in Consequence of his late Letter, addressed to the Hon. and Rt. Rev. the Lord Bishop of Durham, &c. 8vo. 6d. Treppass.

Postscript of a Letter to the Rev. Percival Stockdale, in Consequence of his late Letter, addressed to the Hon. and Rt. Rev. the Lord Bishop of Durham, &c. The Postscript in Reply to the Rev. Mr. Stockdale's late Address to the Public. 8vo. 3d. Treppass.

The bishop of Durham stands not in need of such a defender; and, whatever may have been the conduct of the clergyman who is here attacked, the anonymous writer shows little regard to the spirit of that religion to which he so frequently alludes in his animadversions on the object of his unchristian resentment. We can scarcely believe that a new edition of this insignificant publication has been desired by the public, as it is asserted in the Postscript; but, if a new edition has been called for, we presume that the demand has arisen from some local circumstances of no consequence to the public in general.

Some Account of the Proceedings that took place on the Landing of the French near Fishguard, in Pembrokeshire, on the 22d February, 1797; and of the Inquiry afterwards had into Lieut. Col. Knox's Conduct on that Occasion, by order of his Royal Highness the Commander in Chief; together with the official Correspondence, and other Documents. By Thomas Knox. 8vo. 2s. No Publisher's Name.

On the landing of the French at Fishguard, Mr. Knox hastened to the spot, and made what appeared to him the necessary arrangements for discovering their strength; and finding it inexpedient to attack them with the few men under his command, retreated towards Haverford-west to wait for the reinforcements which were hourly expected. In his retreat he was met by lord Cawdor, who informed him that, by appointment of the lord-lieutenant, he had assumed the command of the troops, which, by a recent letter, Mr. Knox understood had been given to colonel Colby. This put Mr. Knox into a dilemma for a few minutes; but colonel Colby having stated that he had given up the command to lord Cawdor, and that the present was not a fit time for disputes, Mr. Knox followed his example, and put himself under the command of his lordship. Mr.

Knox received the thanks of the king for his conduct; but a letter from Mr. Hasfall to Mr. Macnamara, which reprobated in strong language the conduct of Mr. Knox, led to an inquiry by an officer sent from the duke of York, in consequence of which Mr. Knox demanded a court-martial, or a public investigation of his conduct. Both were refused. The lord-lieutenant requested Mr. Knox, in the king's name, to resign his commission, which he did: he sent a challenge to lord Cawdor; which was accepted; and, when an attempt was made to bring the matter into a civil court, Mr. Macnamara informed Mr. Knox's solicitor that he was ready to fight Mr. Knox if he pleased. The subject is a very delicate one. The officers in Mr. Knox's corps bear testimony to his spirit and conduct: lord Cawdor calls the latter in question.

Substance of the Speech of the Rt. Hon. the Earl of Westmorland, in the House of Lords, on the Motion for the Recommitment of the Slave Trade Limitation Bill, on the fifth Day of July, 1799. Published at the Request of the West-India Merchants and Planters. Svo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

If this be the *substance* of a speech, what must be the shadow! Though the West-India merchants and planters may conceive that *any thing* spoken in favour of slavery in the house of peers must be important and wonderful, we are ready to acknowledge that we can learn nothing from this *substantial speech*, but that the earl of Westmorland and the West-India merchants and planters are not good judges of reasoning or of eloquence.

An Account of the Navies of Foreign Powers, particularly those of France, Spain, and Batavia, now at War with Great Britain; including a List of Frigates, Corvettes, and Sloops; also, the Navies of Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and Naples; with a comparative State of the Line of Battle Ships in the last War; and the present State of the British Navy. By James Browell, of the Royal Navy. 4to. 1s. Steel. 1799.

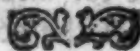
This account will not be useless, if it be accurate, of which, however, we entertain some doubts.

An Examination of the Merits and Tendency of The Pursuits of Literature. By W. Burdon, A. M. Two Parts. Svo. Condensed. 1799.

Labour ill directed.

ERRATUM.

In our last Volume, p. 389, line 9 from the bottom, *dele* the words *that of*.



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